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## THE PUBLIC, THE PRESS, AND CHEAP LITERATURE.

THE world of journalism and general literature is undergoing a great and singular revolution. Every alteration in the law which in any way affects the press, or the publication of cheap books and magazines, has always produced important, and in many instances unexpected, results; but no innovation ever equalled in its effects those which are expected from the abolition of the Paper Duty. The removal of the compulsory stamp on newspapers brought into existence the Penny Press; and this has become so thoroughly popular, and so much a part of our social system, that almost every town in the kingdom which can boast of three or four thousand inhabitants has its local journal, partly printed in London. But, great as this change was, it will assuredly bear no comparison with that which we are now about to witness. Almost every day there is an announcement of some new publication, or of a reduction in the price of an old one. A tumultuous scramble is taking place for the coveted prize of public favour. The wildest competition has been raging during the last fortnight, and we are told of newspaper proprietors who are content, not only to throw away the fair and legitimate profit they have been earning, but also to submit to a heavy loss, week after week—for no other purpose, apparently, than to see which can beggar the other first. The day is probably not far distant when the public will discover that this rivalry is by no means designed for *their* advantage, though they may at present reap some slight benefit from a contest which is only intended to crush the weakest, and to build up a monopoly. It is not straightforward trading to sell an article below its cost price; and no one can suppose that a system based on such a principle can be permanent. This question, however, is one in which it cannot be expected that the public will concern themselves. An issue of much greater moment than the success or failure of a few speculators is raised by the events now taking place around us. Is there any risk of that class of literature which appeals to the "masses" being reduced to a lower standard? Will the undertakings of certain publishers tend to debase or to elevate the popular taste? In short, will the abolition of the Paper Duty lead to an advance or to a retrogression in letters? These are questions that may be discussed quite independently of any special publication or project, and undoubtedly they must possess great interest for all who mark attentively the circumstances which influence, for good or evil, our social life.

It is evident that the proprietors of cheap serials hold very different opinions concerning the intelligence of the people from those entertained by Lord Brougham. An examination of the current numbers of any of the halfpenny or penny magazines will show that what is called "sensation" writing is the thing chiefly aimed at. If we turn to the cheap press the indications we discern are not exclusively of an encouraging character. We have no desire to underrate the enterprise and perseverance which have been devoted to some of these journals, but it cannot be denied that they too often lose sight of the fact that their proper calling is to guide and direct opinion. Instead of aiming to afford information, or to lead their readers to *think*, they habitually indulge in violent, reckless writing. The greatest master of invective is deemed the best member of the staff. An argumentative article would be considered wholly out of place—heavy, dull, and deficient in the "popular element." The rule is, better to misrepresent than to be "dull." No wonder that the writers them-

selves become demoralized and incapable of performing any serious or earnest work.

Under such a system how is it possible that the great questions of the day can be considered in a calm, rational spirit of inquiry? One journal bids against another for a frothy and vapid, but vituperative and rancorous writer, and forthwith we have followers in the steps of the successful man, filling our newspapers with crude opinions founded upon thoughtless prejudice. It is not deemed necessary to *prove* anything. A statesman is assailed with scurrility because it has been the fashion to attack him, or a government is condemned because the journalist will not take the trouble to make himself acquainted with its policy. His object is simply to write a "slashing leader." He delights in "cutting up" measures and men, in heaping abuse indiscriminately, in retailing and furbishing up old scandals, in mentioning half a dozen famous names in a single paragraph, only to heap contumely upon them, and in giving as much offence and causing as much pain as possible. Nothing can be more easy than for a man of average powers to pen such articles, if he be willing to degrade his gifts for the purpose. There need be no time given to thought—no trouble taken to seek for information. A pitiful *rechauffé* of passages in modern history, a free use of proper names, and some obscure allusions to old events, dressed up in tinsel, and "spiced" with a certain degree of bitterness—and the "leader" is complete. The process may be repeated day after day without exhausting the brain, for the brain is not employed at all. The vocabulary needs but to be frequently replenished, and there are books enough to help the lame over this stile. The article thus produced has its brief day, and perishes as it deserves to perish. It has given no material for reflection. It has taught nothing, for the writer was himself ignorant. But it has done its work in misleading public opinion and in corrupting public taste.

The answer will probably be that this reckless, delusive writing "pays." We disbelieve the statement. We doubt whether the people are contented to have their understandings insulted by flippant representations of important facts, and by preposterous distortions of great events. This is one point that the excessive competition now going on will fairly test. There will still be a number of respectable journals which will scorn a popularity which is only to be acquired by such means. It will be seen whether the public prefer to have thought, argument, and sound information, or careless, desultory, unsubstantial declamation. Journalism will recover from the shock it has received, we feel fully persuaded. The language of Addison and Swift, of Goldsmith and Johnson, of Burke and Mackintosh, of Hallam and Macaulay, will not be always profaned by men who write for the day's hire alone, who feel no justifiable craving after an enduring fame, and whose names are written upon water. Nay, it is possible that the rising generation of journalists may be too wise in the application of their talents to follow in the unhonoured path of the writers who have founded a school whose tenet is to trample conscience and principle beneath their feet.

It is not indeed likely that the extension of cheap and inferior newspapers, produced by such agencies, and providing such food for the popular appetite for news, will lessen the number of educated and intelligent people who look to some favourite journal for the expression of enlightened opinion on every public event in their own country and abroad; who require to study the daily history of the world in all its varying aspects; who are pleased to place themselves





under the guidance, permanent or temporary, of political thinkers of a high order of intellect and character; and who enjoy the graces of style that flow from the pen of the practised writers of our noble English language. Though the circulation of the lower classes of newspapers may be greatly augmented, it by no means follows that they will drive out of the field of competition those first-class journals which appeal to thoughtful and educated people in politics, commerce, finance, literature, science, and art. For such journals there will always be an honourable place in this country; and, though they cannot hope to attain the immense circulation of the very cheap publications that appeal to the ignorant or the half-informed; there exist, within certain limits that are easily to be calculated, the materials for their steady growth in favour and in prosperity. The old lines of social and intellectual demarcation still exist, and it will be more than ever incumbent upon those who desire that the press of England should continue to be the most able, the most fearless, and the most honest, and in all respects the first in the world, to support the journals that engage the highest talent in their service, and that aspire either to lead or to reflect the public opinion of the time.

With reference to our own position, we feel assured that a reduction in the price of this journal is neither expected nor desired by our readers. They must have perceived that we long ago virtually anticipated the repeal of the Paper Duty, and added considerably to the value and size of *THE LONDON REVIEW* by issuing with it a gratuitous Supplement,—a step that we could scarcely have taken but for the prospect of being released from the payment of duty on paper. Before we had ourselves reaped any advantage from the abolition of the tax, we gave the public the full benefit to which they were entitled; and now, instead of offering them a fractional reduction in our price, we propose rather to make arrangements that shall add to the general value of our paper. What we have gained our readers shall also gain.

We have hitherto spared no pains to make *THE LONDON REVIEW* one of the best organs of literary and scientific information of the day, to set before our readers sound views of politics, and interesting discussions of those social questions which are beginning to excite an interest equal to that of politics in general society. This course we shall now be able to pursue with increased power, and consequently with greater success. This is the rational course for us to pursue; and we believe it to be the course our readers themselves would prefer us to take instead of proffering them an inappreciable reduction in charge.

#### NORTH AND SOUTH INCOMPATIBLE.

**T**HE civil war in America has now reached a stage which may enable us to gather from its course a better understanding of its nature and its causes, and estimate with higher probability some of the results which it is likely to accomplish. There was too great a tumult of feeling at its outbreak, too great an unwillingness to look the truth in the face and state plainly the real character of the issue, to allow of an easy discernment of the situation. The waters are running themselves clear as the stream flows on; words and conventional phrases are giving way to stern realities; and the overwhelming interest of the war dissipates not only all shams, but also those natural and excusable conventionalities with which men endeavour so long to hide painful truths from their consciousness.

We do not, indeed, venture to assert that all mystery is cleared up; but we are persuaded that the world is now in a better position to get an insight into the causes of this great event, and to judge it more accurately. It has long been the fashion in England to speak of this as the most unjustifiable civil war on record; and even now intelligent spectators like the Emperor of Russia persist in urging the Americans to make up the quarrel by shaking hands, and letting bygones be bygones. We fear that this is the language of well-meaning regret rather than the voice of reason and true insight. The struggle, as it proceeds, proclaims to us a far different and more disagreeable moral. The conflict which is raging within the heart of that great population cannot be allayed by remedies that act only on the surface. The deadly war which arrays brother against brother in America is, we fear, only the necessary and inevitable eruption of fires which consume the vitals of American society. The earthquake has come at last, and the dislocation of American society is terrific.

What, then, has been the upheaving force? The mortal strife of two incompatible societies, irreconcilable in their natures, their organization, their aims, and their animating spirit. A social system based on slavery cannot co-exist with a social system based on liberty; the laws of Providence and of nature forbid it. It is not merely that the South employs slave-labour, and the North does not; this is but a very feeble statement of the profound opposition between the two elements contending with each other within the bosom of the United States. Their whole modes of existence are radically dissimilar and antagonistic. The cast of thought, the estimates formed of the various elements of human life, the qualities of each individual man, his hopes and fears, his manner of business and the style of his amusements, his political conceptions and aspirations, his notions of society and its fitting objects, in a word, the structure of his ideas

and his mind itself, are fundamentally different in the South from what they are in the North; the incompatibility is as real as that between the English and the Maories in New Zealand. We have been slow in England to discern this truth; the vast growth of the United States, their gigantic and orderly commerce, have concealed from our eyes the fatal cancer which lay hid within. It was difficult for those who saw the huge ships and the piled-up bales which emerged from them in the docks of Liverpool to frame any other notion of America than that of a powerful and prosperous community; yet all the while a collision of thought and feeling was going on of which we now perceive the catastrophe.

The South was the first to discern accurately the real nature of the position; it came to a clear conviction that if its social fabric was to exist it must be supreme in the State. A middle course was impossible; it must be in the ascendant or must set up for itself. It was useless to characterize it as unreasonable, violent, and unmanageable; it could not be otherwise; slaveowners could not live with freemen, any more than oil can remain permanently mixed with water. The extension of the slave territories was not the point of the quarrel; a little more or less won or lost by particular laws was not the issue that men fought for; the battle was for supremacy, for political mastery, for the predominance of the slave-holding forces, for the government of the North by the South. They could aim at nothing less; thorough victory or destruction was the sole alternative, if the nation was not broken up. Much wonder was expressed in England that so small an event as the election of Mr. Lincoln should have produced consequences of such magnitude; such resolute violence, such a determination at once to break with the North and shiver the nation to pieces seemed so utterly inexplicable. But it is now plain that the South judged the event more correctly; they had struggled for many years to establish their domination; for many years they had guided the policy of the United States; but now the tide was turned, and their reign was over. In Europe the result was regarded as simply the ordinary defeat of one political party by another, of the Democrats by the Republicans, as the mere every-day working of constitutional government; but the South knew better; they felt that it was for them a struggle for life or death; they had lost the day, and secession was the only chance left of safety.

In vain did Mr. Lincoln protest, as he does still, that no interference was intended with the peculiar institution of the South, that slavery was to be respected as much as ever, and that he and his party harboured no designs which were prejudicial to the interests of the South. The Southerners were better political philosophers; they knew that in a living society standing still is impossible, and that the victory of the Republicans must, by the laws of human nature, bear its natural fruits. They had striven to save the form of society established in the South by reducing its rivals into subjection; they were beaten men now, and the ideas, the feelings, the tone, and cast of mind of the North must ultimately prevail.

In this view we have a complete and satisfactory explanation of all that has occurred; an impossible union broken up by the inevitable arrival of a natural crisis. And if we in England have been somewhat slow to understand what has been going on, we may comfort ourselves by the reflection that the North, with far less excuse, has been equally slow. The catastrophe, it cannot be denied, came upon the North as a surprise. They had completely succeeded in mystifying themselves; they had fondly and unconsciously believed that half-heartedness, double-mindedness, fast and loose dealing with slavery, would last for ever. They prospered on the vast trade fed and sustained by the South; they reaped huge profits by a commerce which nourished the manufactories of all Europe; they gathered golden harvests by protective laws, which raised heavy contributions on the South; they vaunted the natural rights of man, whilst enriched by the drudging toil of the African captive; and they thought, in the folly and perverseness of their hearts, that they belonged to a great Republic, one and indivisible, and that to them had been given to solve the problem of combining firmly together political contradictories.

They talked and vapoured much about slavery, but they meant little and pocketed its gains, and when the storm burst, their first and only thought was, not to seize the opportunity of getting rid for ever of the disgrace and the weakness of their nation, but to prevent the yellow streams of wealth from being diverted from their wonted channels. They clung to their hypocrisy till they were driven from it by disaster; and slowly, reluctantly, and with every conceivable and practicable resistance, they are learning the unwelcome truth; that they must renounce slavery and its gains, and whether in union or disunion, must construct a society which shall eliminate from itself an element that would make all political crystallization impossible. The Democrats cannot make up their minds to tear themselves away from their beloved gains; they talk still of compromise and concession; but they understand not what they say. The South cannot compromise; for supremacy alone can save society, as constructed in the South, from decay. If the Democrats, aided by President Lincoln, could overcome the opposition of the Republicans, and, which is far harder, bring the far-seeing leaders of the South to submit



to compromise—to some miserable regulations about the latitude of slavery—nothing would be gained; the old sore would speedily break out again, for no healing would have been accomplished. Each of the two societies would retain its special principle intact; and, in spite of the efforts and cunning contrivances of selfishness, the old proverb would be verified, and “what is bred in the bone would come out in the flesh.” The unquelled repugnance of the two nations to each other would repeat the conflict. The South, unless held down by main force—the force of a despotism—would inevitably secede again.

Such are the lessons which the history of this sad struggle has revealed to us. The North must fall back on the principle of freedom, and the South can live only by the ascendancy of the principle of slavery. We lament this civil war; we deplore the sight of men of the same race engaged in destructive strife with each other; but separation is inevitable—separation, whether by the success of the South in establishing its independence, or by the elimination, more or less gradual, of slavery from the United States by the victory of the North. No other solution can be permanent, or is even possible.

#### IRISH PROSPERITY.

ALMOST every one has a line. There are very few so stupid or so worthless as not to be able to do something well if they only apply themselves to it, though it is not always the case that a person judges correctly, especially at first, of what he or she may be best suited to excel in. Some aim at high things, but learn by experience that very moderate aims are all that their natural capabilities qualify them for. They perhaps are not always to be pitied; but there can be no doubt that those are to be envied who, having failed in trifles, and having been instigated by such failure to devote themselves to higher objects, succeed in the latter, and gain an extensive, it may be an enduring reputation, by well-directed useful exertion. Such an one is the Dowager Lady Londonderry. As a traveller she does not seem to have reaped much enjoyment, and as a narrator of her travels she certainly was not uniformly tasteful or happy. She has now given up roaming, and devotes herself to the improvement of her estates and her tenantry, with as much energy as she was wont to show in scolding mule-drivers or invading harems, and with a judicious benevolence and sound practical sagacity, which makes her a most useful friend to her tenants and dependents, and a very wholesome example to others of similar rank and opportunities. She has just had the annual gathering of her Irish tenants at Carnlough, dining with them, and, with a departure from ordinary custom, which was certainly commendable in this instance, herself returning thanks to those who drank her health, mingling with graceful expressions of obligation, seasonable words of admonition and encouragement. She was not the only speaker; she was accompanied by Sir Hugh Cairns, and the speech of that eloquent and statesmanlike lawyer contains, as was natural, matter of wider interest than her own.

Her ladyship with entire propriety confined herself to the condition of her own estate, though the advice which she earnestly impressed upon her hearers not to depend so greatly on the potato as Irish cultivators have been in the habit of doing, was no doubt applicable to the whole island, as was her not unbecoming praise of her tenants and herself, which she deservedly held up as an example of what might be done by “a good pull, a strong pull, and a pull altogether,” and as “a proof what may be accomplished by the tenantry cordially uniting with the proprietor,” in objects calculated for their common advantage. But Sir Hugh professedly embraces the whole of Ireland in the view of affairs which he submitted to the Antrim farmers. And if he may be supposed to have somewhat daunted them at first by the extensive knowledge which he affirmed to be necessary for a skilful cultivation of the land, he abundantly consoled them afterwards by his assertion of the great progress which Ireland had of late years made in those arts which most conduce to the permanent welfare of a nation. Like many of the speakers at the different English agricultural meetings on which we have occasionally commented, this part of his speech may be taken as addressed to the whole United Kingdom, since no man possessed of English statesmanship, or an English heart, ever recognizes the principle asserted by the Irish demagogues, that the interests of the two islands are in any respect anything but identical. In all that concerns the welfare of Ireland, whether civil or religious, we claim to be as Irish as the veriest Milesian between Belfast and Limerick.

And in this spirit we feel the sincerest joy at the picture of the steady progress made by Ireland which Lord Derby's Solicitor-General felt warranted in laying before his hearers, and, through them, before the kingdom and the world. His description of the prosperity by which he was surrounded was in one single point still local, when he spoke of the excellent schools which are to be found on Lady Londonderry's property; but the advice which he founded on this fact was again of universal application, when he told the farmers that—

“this was a question in which they had a solemn duty to discharge towards their children, and that, unless they wished their sons who were to come after

them, and to be the tenants of that property as they had been; unless they wished them to be unskilled labourers, cultivating the ground without hope of prosperity, they must sacrifice a little the advantage which they might derive from their labours in early years, in order to allow them to go to school, and to remain a proper time there, so that they might have the satisfaction of thinking that those who may come after them may be men rising in the world, cultivating their farms better than had hitherto been done, keeping up with the spirit of the times and the progress of agriculture.”

There is no question but that here Sir Hugh touched upon the greatest obstacle to the intellectual progress of the lower orders, when he spoke of the pecuniary loss which parents have to undergo if they send their children to school, instead of to labour in fields or factories. It is demanding of those to whom every shilling, ay, every penny, is of consequence, a foregoing of present advantage for greater eventual benefit; while, moreover, the advantage to be foregone is their own, the greater benefit hoped for is to be not so much theirs as their children's. It is demanding of them a steady course of virtuous self-denial; but such self-denial is the very basis of all those other virtues which alone can make good men or great nations, and its real importance in this instance is so obviously one of the first duties of every man, that we feel it only requires to be set before even the poorest labourers, plainly and kindly, as it was set before them on this occasion, to be recognized as such, and, at whatever cost, cheerfully submitted to.

On other points the speaker had no need of admonition; his language was one of uniform but reasonable congratulation. The improvement in agriculture had been great; those opportunities, too, without which no improvement can be great or steady, were great also, and increasing. Railways are approaching them on all sides; the harbours on their coast are being improved; and the shipping is daily augmenting, by the aid of which the Irish can “ship their produce and import their supplies.” The wise benevolence of Providence has even turned an awful affliction into a blessing. “Fifteen years ago that awful scourge famine visited the land.” Many landowners were utterly ruined, and were forced to sell their estates. The consequence was that Scotch and English capital, to a great amount, was introduced into Ireland; and that now “the correspondent of the *Times* could tell us of farms of 3,000, 4,000, and 5,000 acres, with large farmsteads, supplied with water-power and steam-power; the farms giving excellent employment to the population; so that in districts where wages were formerly 2s. and 3s. a week, they were now 7s., 8s., and even 10s.” And this prosperity, marvellous as it must have seemed to those who could recollect the times of former depression, had produced its natural result on the disposition of the people. Sir Hugh spared them the enumeration of the disorders by which, in times now happily past, the misguided people were wont to add to their own miseries; and preferred praising what he affirmed to be the spirit that now prevails throughout the island—a spirit of peace and contentment, and of general “loyalty and obedience to the laws, such as never prevailed at any former period in that country.” And, contrasting the present state of the empire with that which we see across the Atlantic, he felt himself justified in pointing, “with pride and happiness, to the union and harmony which prevail in all parts of these kingdoms.”

Some portion of all this prosperity and union is, no doubt, owing to the improved spirit in which the government of Ireland has of late been administered; and which is equally creditable to both the Liberals and Conservatives. Lord Carlisle and Lord Eglinton have both ruled Ireland with a conciliatory and impartial liberality which has extinguished disaffection among all but those whose grumbling had no origin but the disappointment of their own selfishness; and the fact that the clamours against each of these noblemen have come chiefly from their own supporters, may be taken as a proof that they have had no foundation in any real grievance. But as, after all, a nation's prosperity, like that of an individual, depends mainly on his own conduct, Sir Hugh had good reason for the special commendation of both the landowner and the tenants whom he was addressing, with which he concluded. In its particular features, Antrim may differ from other districts; but the causes to which that portion of it which belongs to Lady Londonderry owes its prosperity will operate equally in, and are equally indispensable to, every district in Europe: a judicious spirit of enlightened and liberal enterprise actuating the occupiers of the land, and judiciously fostered by the owner; and an interchange of kindly feeling between both, based on the conviction that their interests and welfare are identical and indivisible.

#### LOW INTEREST AND LOW CONSOLS.

THERE is great perplexity among the financial authorities on the Exchange. The rate of interest is steadily going down, and so are the funds, and that is against all rule. The old landmarks are disappearing; buoys and lights no longer fence out the old channel; and sailing in the waters of the money market has become a very uncertain affair. This is extremely provoking; for no people are so oracular, so full of the sense of the profoundness of their science, as the great men of the City and City Articles; the more the vulgar



world finds it hard to discover the rules they go by, the more significantly they shake their heads, and, like the Pharisees of old, intimate that it is not for an ignorant and uneducated public to understand such mysteries. It would be well, however, if they would sometimes give a thought to the suspicion that thickness of water does not always imply real depth, and that very solemn phrases which pass current in the world are often without any solid foundation.

No doubt low discount, concurrently with low Consols, is against authority; but it is a fact, nevertheless, and, we suspect, not against nature. Why should a low bank rate of discount send up the price of the funds? Because, we are told, cheap money means abundance of money; and consequently the seekers of investments must be multiplied, purchasers increase, and up must go the funds, and everything else in the share list. We have nothing to say against this statement; it correctly represents facts which often occur, and as correctly explains them. But does it embrace all the facts? Is not the very phenomenon, which is such a puzzler to these great folks, a fact? And being a fact, how is it that they are at fault to interpret the riddle? Simply because an intellectual vice, which is unfortunately very common in other departments of science, springs up also in the science of money. Here, as elsewhere, people reason from particulars to generals, pronounce that to be universal which is only local and accidental, and found upon it empirical rules, which hold good only occasionally, and break down, to the great confusion of their framers, when some variety in the facts has spoilt its application. In the instance before us the perplexity arises from a want of perception of the cause of the decline of interest, and an unconsciousness of the altered relation which of late years the funds occupy towards the rest of the money market.

On a former occasion, we showed that capital might be at a given time redundant from two very different causes: it might have become actually greater; or, while it remained stationary, or had even diminished, the means of employing it may have decreased in a still greater ratio, and consequently there may be an excess in the hands of capitalists and bankers. The effects produced by these two causes are very different. In the first case, there would follow a state of things with which we are so familiar—competition for the purchase of investments, activity of speculation, new schemes for the disposal of the accumulating capital, low rate of discount, a buoyant tone in the public, and a general sense of prosperity. The signs which meet the eye in the second case are by no means painted in the same colours. A diminution of the previous fields for the employment of labour and capital throws back on the capitalist, the master-manufacturer, or the merchant, funds which he is puzzled how to use; trade languishes locally, if not generally; the tone of the mercantile community is desponding; speculation is dead; new projects meet with no favour; interest, too, droops, but not as before, because there is a rush of capital seeking employment which will yield a profit, however small, but because branches of trade are decaying, and the unhappy traders have no heart nor confidence for engaging in new enterprises. The reluctance, too, to make new investments is greatly augmented, if the depression is supposed to be the result of temporary causes, which will pass away and be followed by the restoration of the old state of things; for, under such circumstances, the capitalists whose funds for the moment are lying idle, will not be willing to renounce entirely their former enterprises, but will simply wait on in the hope of better days.

Those who have watched the course of recent events will readily recognize in these words a description of the principal features now exhibited by the money market. That market is sick with a plethora of undigested capital. England in the past year has made no overwhelming profits; she has not even sustained the progress of preceding years. Mills are working half time; the supply of raw material is threatened; its cost is vastly enhanced, and is not met by a corresponding increase in the price of the manufactured goods, and there is a general redundancy of money, because the old calls for it have suddenly declined or disappeared altogether. No doubt the goodness of the present harvest is a counteracting force, generating an opposite result, and steadily working in the contrary direction; but it is the weaker of the two forces; it can only mitigate the symptoms; it is unable to extinguish them entirely. America depresses our industry in two ways, by curtailing the materials which feed our activity, and by destroying, through the annihilating processes of war, that capital which would have found its employment in trade, and would have reared up valuable customers for English wares.

It is obvious that the capitalist who looks forward to an early change in this aspect of affairs will not be a buyer of Consols or other long investments. His money will flow into the general discount market in search of temporary employment, thus occasioning, by competition, a fall in the rate of interest; but it will not send up the funds; it will have no tendency to act in that direction. Peace may be restored in America, and any day our merchants may feel a sudden need for their resources; they cannot let them be locked up in inaccessible places, or run the risks of buying and selling in Consols or in any other market the movements of which they cannot foresee. They will

prefer to deposit their money with bankers, who, as a matter of course, will look out for bills, and will be compelled to charge less for loans in order to procure them; discount will fall, but long investments will be unaffected.

This is one side of the phenomenon: now what is the other? What is the position of the public funds in these days? Are they the infallible sign they were wont to be of thriving or depressed commerce, of abundant or defective capital, of political confidence or distrust? Assuredly they are not; a great change has come over them; the upward movement of the world has taken away something from their eminence. The vast expansion of British commerce has created an immense number of solid and profitable investments of the highest order; the accumulations of wealth have gone on at such a pace, that there are fields for the application of capital of great abundance and of superior profitability, which were utterly unknown in ancient days. The funds are now beset by a host of competitors which, in many important respects, have superior attractions to their own. The debentures and loan-stock of railway companies, by themselves alone, are most formidable rivals to the funds in precisely the same field. Four per cent. is obtainable with ease on railway bonds, which the investing portion of the public regards with constantly increasing favour, and considers them to furnish a security as trustworthy, practically, as that offered by the credit of the nation. There are thousands of people who formerly committed their savings to Consols as a matter of course, who now as regularly entrust them to railway debentures. Then, again, the Court of Chancery has recently registered the alteration of opinion which has taken place by sweeping away the exclusive prerogative of the National Funds, and authorising the investment of trust-funds in the public loans of India and the stock of the Bank of England. This last was a great invasion of the old privilege; for the Bank is nothing but a company of traders, and the holders of its stock have no mortgage like the owners of railway debentures, but share only the fluctuating profits of a commercial firm.

The true marvel is that the funds should still be so high; the speed of commercial intelligence and general confidence is setting so strongly against their former monopoly, that Three per Cents. at 93 is still a wonderful price. They maintain that position partly from the influence which old habits have on a large class of money owners, a race naturally timid, and averse to change. But, like all markets with excessive rates, they are unsteady, uncertain, apt to fluctuate, from sudden and accidental causes, from the absence of a well-defined and well-regulated demand, and the substitution in its place of elements of buying and selling, which are in perpetual conflict. Instead of the solid basis of a broad foundation, the funds are acquiring gradually the loftier but more tottering elevation of a tall pole on a narrow base; and they will not regain their legitimate steadiness and regularity till their value is made to harmonize more closely with their intrinsic merit. There is too much opinion mixed up with the estimation at which they are rated, and opinion is only another word for fluctuation. And thus, at a time like the present, when capital is not increased, but only certain amounts of it are out of work for the moment, the money market supplies no new strength to the funds by the reduction of the rate of discount; whilst the very gloom which overspreads the mercantile world as to the possible duration of the American disturbance tends to discourage investors, and to make them doubt the continuance of prices, which by their very nature are already intrinsically too high.

#### PRIZE PEASANTS.

COMMON sense was declared by a sagacious cynic to be the most uncommon of all qualities. But rare or the reverse, it is always delightful, especially if it be expressed in good sturdy English, pointed and grammatical, and not too fine for the comprehension of the unscholarly. One likes to see the grain of wheat extracted without hesitation or mistake from the bushel of chaff in which it has been lodged, and to witness the dexterity with which a man with a clear head and a ready tongue disentangles the skein of a logical error, a false pretence, or a specious fallacy, and makes straight and intelligible that which, before he applied his mind to it, was crooked and confused. And for a favourable specimen of this admirable, and we hope not altogether rare quality (*pace*, our cynic), commend us to the speech made last week by Mr. John Walter, M.P., at the Anniversary dinner of the Wokingham Agricultural Association. In the forenoon there had been a ploughing-match, and a distribution of agricultural prizes to the best ploughmen and thatchers, as well as to shepherds who had reared the greatest number of lambs during the year; and to the successful exhibitors of roots and poultry. Prizes were also given (the amount or kind not stated in the report) to farm-servants for length of service. It fell to the lot of Mr. Walter, as president of the Association, to deliver all these prizes, which he doubtless did with the best possible grace; but with a misgiving in the case of those awarded for length of service, to which he gave full expression at the afternoon dinner. No sooner had the loyal and formal toasts



been disposed of, than he took occasion, in proposing the toast of the evening, "Success to the Wokingham Agricultural Association," to denounce the giving of prizes to farm-servants. He thought the practice was not only beyond the proper scope and objects of such associations, but that it was as degrading to the recipients as it was ill-judged and improper on the part of the donors.

It is to be hoped that his plain, practical, and seasonable remarks will find a wide response throughout the country, and that the promoters of agricultural societies will take them earnestly to heart, and inquire whether they do not travel utterly beyond their province in meddling with moral subjects, that have nothing whatever to do with good husbandry; and whether the award of prizes to the peasantry, either for good conduct or length of service, does not virtually degrade the recipient into the condition of an animal. To award prizes to the best ploughmen or thatchers, after an open competition and exhibition of their skill, in the presence of those who know what good ploughing and good thatching are, is as wholesome and provocative of fair and legitimate emulation, as to give prizes for rifle-shooting, or any other display of art, skill, or dexterity. But when it comes to be a question of rewarding men for honesty or length of service under one employer—which may or may not be a virtue,—the case is wholly altered, and the poor people who are ostentatiously trotted out to receive such prizes are degraded from the condition of free men, who know their own interests, and are capable of promoting them by the exercise of their own free will and judgment, to that of cattle, or, at the best, to that of slaves and serfs.

In fact, to offer a man a prize for what he is or ought to be, is to degrade and insult him, however kind and benevolent may be the intention. To offer him a prize for what he does, is a different matter altogether; for the world can judge of it without prying into the secrecy of his heart. Prizes to the owners or breeders of fat pigs, strong bulls, or prolific kine, are all very well, and not open to objection, because it is the interest of society to encourage the breed of domestic cattle; but when prizes are offered for honesty, cleanliness, length of service, or for the independent and manly support of a large family, without aid from the parish, those who offer such prizes tell the men who come up to receive them in the sight of the world, that they are not the right kind of men after all, but something inferior; that they are higher, no doubt, in the scale of creation than gorillas, but lower by several degrees than the squire, or the tenant-farmer, or even than the village shopkeeper, to whom no one would dare to offer a prize for having kept his shop for forty years without having committed an act of bankruptcy, or without having defrauded his customers by short weight or measure, or adulterated goods. Practically, they assert their belief that neither honesty, nor cleanliness, nor fidelity, nor independence of mind, is in itself a sufficient reward, but that these estimable qualities, so useful to be employed in the service of their superiors, require extraneous aid and encouragement, lest they should die out altogether, and the squires, tenant-farmers, and other unhappy employers of labour, should be left without proper persons to do their work, and aid them in growing rich.

We are told by Pope that

"An honest man is the noblest work of God;"

that

"Worth makes the man, the want of it the fellow;"

and that mere title and worldly position are in themselves things of such small account that—

"Not all the blood of all the Howards,

Can e'er ennoble sots, or knaves, or cowards."

Goldsmith sings in mellifluous English that a bold peasantry is their country's pride; and Burns, in still finer language, that has sunk into the hearts of the people and helped to mould and regulate their lives, that "a man's a man for a' that," that a king can make a belted knight, a marquis, or a duke, but cannot make an honest man, whose rank is high above all these, and that the rank is merely the stamp upon the guinea, but that the true man is the gold—whether he have or have not the patrician stamp upon him. But the well meaning members of agricultural associations, who give money, or a waistcoat, or a pair of breeches to poor men for doing their duty,—poor men whom the rector or the curate proclaims every Sunday from the pulpit to be their equals in the sight of heaven,—do their utmost to eradicate from the minds of the peasantry the independent and manly feelings which religion as well as poetry strives to implant within them. In so acting they exhibit an amount of selfishness which is none the less selfish because it takes the form of charity and good will. Let the farmer or the squire reward his dog for its fidelity if it so please him, but let him not do his labourer or farm servant the injustice of supposing that he requires any such bribe. A fair day's wage for a fair day's work is the claim of a man; and the man who receives is quite as good as the man who gives it. That is the true principle. Every other is degradation.

#### THE DRY ROT IN ST. MARTIN'S.

**A**MONG the consolatory paragraphs in the report of the year's finance—the small mercies and crumbs of comfort in a bill of fare not very promising to the future digestion of taxpayers,—stand three lines that inform us, "the revenue from the Post-office exhibits a progressive improvement." All improvement is good, and when progressive it is better. But we wish this state of things, better as it is than what the Chancellor of the Exchequer can report of the revenue of other departments, could be followed by similar testimony as to its morality, from the Old Bailey. Unfortunately, the very reverse is the fact. In addition to the ordinary number of cases of letter-stealing, the past week has been distinguished by the discovery of a suppression of correspondence on an extraordinary scale of magnitude; about 1,500 letters have been lost to Lombard-street and the London bankers' list during the last few months, by the dishonesty of one postman; and the consequent confusion in the gold regions and commercial streets of the city has been extreme. Detection will, of course, be followed by prosecution, and conviction by imprisonment,—another case being thus added to the many that have already converted Millbank into a branch of St. Martin's-le-Grand.

Post-office prosecutions are becoming as numerous as those of the Bank of England in the old and evil days of note-forgeries, when that establishment "took to hanging," as Tom Moore said; desiring to protect an imperfect system of printing its promises to pay, by extreme severity. This harshness did not put a stop to the forgeries, but a change of system did; and it is a change of system that we should advise the Post-office to try.

That the department may be able to show more than a million of revenue above its expenses on the year, is no compensation to the public for the loss of cheques, bills, coin, or anything else entrusted to it. Moreover, as the establishment grows rich, so it becomes demoralized; the more money it makes, the less it can be trusted. This may arise, in part, from the very fact of its being managed so as to supply a revenue, which it was not intended to do. It is a great machinery, organized to carry the correspondence of the nation; if it can do that, and pay its expenses, it fulfills its purpose well. It is not required to rival the Excise department as a replenisher of the coffers of the State.

The Post-office authorities should reflect that they do not sit on such inaccessible heights as those of the Admiralty and the Horse Guards. The Post-office officials are in daily and hourly contact with the daily business and life of the community. They cannot afford to be "careless of mankind," for the neglect, too long continued, will raise a storm that can be directed right on the proper heads. Naval and military failures and blunders lie outside the circle of ordinary life, that is not much affected by the announcement that a fleet of gunboats are rotten, and that thousands of new boats have been sold as old stores. But we must be able to depend on our letter carriers, or we shall be driven to carry our letters for ourselves, and the Post-office will then cease to exist.

It is more probable that private enterprise will do all its work than that the public should submit to have the system shorn of half its conveniences. We are warned or implored not to put coin into letters, nor jewels, nor anything easily convertible into money, because the letter carriers cannot be trusted with them. This is equivalent to acknowledging that all our vast mechanical facilities for conveyance cannot be employed fully for the want of honesty enough in the human instruments. The proposition will be a discredit to human nature if well founded; but it is disgraceful only to the establishment that makes employment under it just worth obtaining and not worth keeping. Take some of the million the department is not required to make, and with it pay for probity, not for mere pedestrianism.

The chronic state of mutiny among the letter-carriers is deteriorating the whole class; there is a disloyalty to work as well as to allegiance; and the quarrel of the *employés* with their superiors is, we fear, constantly visited on the correspondence of the public, either by carelessness, or the more active misdemeanour of appropriation.

Have the heads of the Post-office ever bethought them that it requires nothing but the removal of a few prohibitions to render the whole establishment unnecessary? The private enterprise that has covered the land with railroads can very easily carry letter-bags along them; the royal seal on them is not at all necessary to the transit.

In fact, all the real work of conveying the mails is done by private companies already. Adam's expresses reach every part of the continent of North America; they are trusted with any amount in any form. If our Post-office notices continue rather to warn the public to abstain from using its machinery, than invite them to employ it; and if the Old Bailey continues the revelations of what becomes of the property still entrusted to the mails, an English private system of expressing letters and packets throughout the empire will most surely be organized, and we shall wonder how we did so long without it!



## PROGRESS IN INDIA—POST-OFFICE TELEGRAPHS.

FROM the official reports published by the authority of Parliament, we compile a brief notice of the Post-office accommodation, and of the extent of telegraphic communication in India in the year ending April 30th, 1860. These means of civilization, so valuable in themselves, have there the additional advantage of spreading Europeans through the country, and increasing their moral influence. Thus the Post-office employs 27,671 persons, including runners, bullock-train guards, boatmen, &c., of whom nearly 2,000 are Europeans. The post-masters amount to 747, and 17 new Post-offices, with 9 new letter boxes, were established in the year. Letters and small packages were carried and distributed over 39,338 miles of mail road, of which 711½ are railways. On 5,861½ miles the post is carried by mail-cart or on horseback, and on 32,765 by runners and boats. The average cost per mile of these different modes of conveyance varies from Rs. 26 11a. 1p. for mail-carts in Bombay, to Rs. 1 8a. 7p. for foot lines in the North-Western Provinces. Where the expense is greatest, the weight of the mail on the main lines has been largely increased, more has been paid for horse hire, and it has been found generally necessary to increase the wages of runners.

The rate of postage is uniform, half an anna. [Prior to it being introduced, the number of articles carried in a year was 19,082,676; in 1859-60 it had increased to 50,498,999; but this was 1,063,105 less than in the previous year, the reduction in the number of troops and the absence of commercial activity being assigned as the reasons of the decline. For the former reason especially, but also on account of an increased charge on newspapers sent from Southampton, the number of them conveyed by the post fell off from 6,023,976 in the previous year, to 4,883,976 in 1859-60. Prior to the uniform rate, the number of paid letters was 4,547,868, and of unpaid, 7,625,004. Last year the number of the former was 19,788,708, and of the unpaid, 14,099,916. Formerly the unpaid were 40 per cent. more numerous than the paid; now the paid are 30 per cent. in excess of the unpaid. The facility of prepayment seems to be less in the North-Western than in the other provinces, for in them the unpaid letters are in excess. The extent to which the natives use the Post-office is not stated, and is not, perhaps, as great as might be expected.]

Letters can be registered as in our Post-office; and from a monthly return it is estimated that 566,000 are registered in a year. There are also district posts, which are better organized in Bombay and Madras than in Bengal; and nearly three times as many letters are conveyed by the Madras as by the Bengal district post. In every province improvement is required, and the Director-General of the Post-office hopes to effect it, though at considerable cost.

In India, as at home, there is annually a considerable number of unclaimed letters which go to the dead-office, and in the year amounted to 683,919. The Post-office there, too, suffers like the Post-office at home by the dishonesty of servants; and in the year 168 such cases are recorded, besides fifty cases of highway robbery, of which the perpetrators of forty-eight remained undetected. These were effected by armed bands, and are proofs of the still disordered state of the country. They occurred chiefly in the North-Western Provinces, and in Bombay; and in many cases in territories still under the jurisdiction of native princes. They are examples of a condition of society which disappears as railways supersede common roads, and bullock-trains are banished by locomotives.

The total disbursements of the establishment were Rs. 45,12,793 7a. 4p., including Rs. 12,34,379 for salaries and establishments; the receipts, Rs. 65,82,903 4a. 4p.; the revenue of the Post-office was, therefore, Rs. 20,70,109 13a. 2p.; but of the total receipts, Rs. 27,47,012 were reckoned for letters sent by the public departments on which the postage was not paid. Deducting the service rendered to the State, the Post-office is a charge, not a source of revenue. The letter sending public, which continually increases its correspondence, pays for the conveyance of Government letters as well as its own. That bullock-trains should yet form part of the Post-office means of transit is another example of a backward condition; but they are now a necessity, especially in the North-Western Provinces. The sum expended on them in the year exceeded that of the year before by Rs. 30,395.

Though complaints are not unknown (1,696 were made in the year, of which 762 were unfounded), the Post-office on the whole is well-regulated. It comprises a delivery of letters from house to house, and the rate of postage, says the report, for the conveyance of a single letter is lower than in any country of the world. The rate, too, for the conveyance of books is proportionably low, and the "parcel post affords an accommodation not given in any other country." As a considerable number of natives are employed in the various departments, the establishment carries improvement and civilization into the most distant quarters of our Indian empire.

The same may be said of the telegraph, which has a large school for training native signal men and other telegraphic officials. In 1859-60 new lines were constructed between Benares and Patna, Rauegunge and Banoora, Dacca and Chittagong, with several branch lines from the East coast main line. Altogether 10,994 miles

and 136 offices were open for public correspondence. It employs 1,061 persons, including some natives, besides line and cable guards, messengers and servants of all kinds. Some lines established during the mutiny for military purposes have been given up, and the progress during the year was rather to improve existing lines than to increase the number. Wooden posts and other wooden supports do not last above five years, and it costs 40,000 rupees per month to replace and repair them. Iron standards are in consequence to be generally adopted. They will be lofty, and the spans will be long, which gives facility for the insulation and erection of multiple lines, which in some localities are essential.

The system employed in signalling is that of Morse, which has been carried into effect by assistance sent from England. In nearly all the offices "the signallers now receive perfectly by ear, and reading from the paper tape is given up." By this method a saving is effected and a greater accuracy attained. "I have made up," says Sir W. B. O'Shaughnessy, the chief superintendent, "a very simple and cheap instrument, which works as well as the best instruments from Berlin, at less than a tenth of their cost. It can easily be dismantled, cleaned, and repaired, and one instrument a day is turned out at the Bangalore workshop, under Mr. Faulkner, the work being quite equal in finish and solidity to the best Prussian instruments." This is extremely satisfactory.

Previous to May, 1859, private messages on business, to secure accuracy, had to be repeated. On examination it was ascertained that of 22,657 messages 492 contained errors, being 1 in 46; and the average of errors in the number of words transmitted was 1 in 762. Subsequent to May, 1859, of 105,893 messages 1,605 contained errors, being 1 in 65. They were chiefly in numbers: "six for sixty, fifteen for fifty," in the names of natives and in words of similar sounds with different meanings, the fact of atmospheric electricity causing the instruments to give articulate sounds while delivering the messages contributes to the errors. Our own telegraph companies provide us with no standard by which to test comparative accuracy; but, considering the difficulties occasioned, in many cases, by the employment of natives in India, we should not be surprised if they could boast of fewer mistakes than are recorded.

The total expenditure for the year, including new constructions, was Rs. 17,20,427, and the cash return was Rs. 4,23,991. The number of messages sent was 170,566, an excess of 69,402 over the year before. At the same time the number of service messages decreased more than 40 per cent., in consequence, no doubt, of the improved condition of the country. The increase in private messages, therefore, was very considerable; and the superintendent properly rejoices that a large proportion of the increase is of messages sent by natives, from 39,724 in 1858-59, to 71,554 in 1859-60. "While the European community is comparatively small, the native bankers and merchants can give as much work as the lines can perform."

All these, and numerous similar advantages, are a new state of existence for them, separating them from the condition of their ancestors, and, as they derive them all from our rule and our civilization, they must become attached to these. As Sir W. B. O'Shaughnessy says in his report, "a great future is before the telegraph in India. There are few European families there who have not some anecdote to tell of its services to them; and Europeans, as they see the tall masts and wires on the margin of every road, feel a thrill of pleasure at these tokens of science and of civilization." Natives, however, as well as Europeans, are ensured security and profit by the telegraph, and there is accordingly abundant evidence that moral progress accompanies these physical improvements.

## TWICE LORD MAYOR.

SOME people say that Mr. Alderman Cubitt, Lord Mayor of London in 1861, and to be Lord Mayor in 1862, is ambitious. Others give his quality of mind a less complimentary epithet, and assert that he is grasping. Personally we believe him to be a very estimable gentleman. He certainly possesses that most powerful of all passports to the favour of Englishmen—and especially of those who carry on business within the sound of Bow bells, and are interested in the local politics of the City of London—he gives good dinners, and many of them. To be rich, hospitable, and courteous; to be endowed with a fair share of capacity, as well as with a large share of the gifts of fortune, is to be a man of mark anywhere; but to be a man of uncommon mark and acceptability, within that limited sphere, of which the Mansion House is the centre.

Yet, in spite of all the respect we cannot but feel for such an Amphitryon, we must rank ourselves among those who disapprove of his re-election to an office which has never been conferred twice on the same individual but in connection with some political object. In vacating his seat for Andover in order that he might secure the greater prize of the representation of London, and thus gain a seat for the Conservatives, Mr. Cubitt did what, in the slang of the day, is called a plucky thing, and had he succeeded in winning the coveted seat, he might fairly have claimed from the gratitude of his



party, if it should be restored to office, the reward of a baronetcy, which is believed to be the real object aimed at on this occasion.

Nay, it is possible that he might have got his Baronetcy from the next Conservative Administration as a graceful acknowledgment of his good intentions, even although he did not succeed in carrying them into effect, if he had put a little restraint upon himself, and been content to bide his time. But he was too eager to wait, and determined to snatch hereditary honours by another and a readier mode. He could not assist in ousting Lord Palmerston from office, but could he not oust Sir Henry Muggeridge, the next successor to the mayoralty in ordinary course, and so clutch the baronetcy that would probably fall to the lot of the favoured individual who should preside over the City in the ensuing year? The year 1862 is to be distinguished, not only by the coming of age of the heir to the throne of England; but by the inauguration of the second Great Industrial and International Exhibition on a scale of greater magnificence than the first.

The Lord Mayor of London in 1862 will, in all probability, in commemoration of the first of these occasions, if not of the second, be created a baronet; and Sir Henry Muggeridge having by seniority arrived at the position which gives him a generally recognized claim to the office, was entitled to it, unless any objection to his character or conduct should be made and established. It is no secret that such charges have been made. Into their justice we need not enter; it is not our province to decide upon them; but it is quite clear that if they are well founded, they furnish a reason not for postponing his mayoralty, but for denying him that dignity altogether; in which case the proper course would have been not to re-elect Mr. Cubitt, but to pass on to the next alderman in rotation.

Mr. Cubitt, however, has succeeded in his preliminary object—like Whittington, he is to be twice Lord Mayor of London (we say *twice* advisedly, since that zealous antiquary, Mr. Theodore Hook, satisfactorily proved *that* to be the correct reading of the momentous warning given by Bow bells to that ancient model of Lord Mayors). Whether this success ensures him the attainment of his second and principal object, we think, indeed we hope, may be more doubtful. The public are beginning to think that hereditary honours are not very appropriately bestowed—are, in fact, depreciated in value when they are treated as appendages to particular offices on particular occasions, instead of as rewards for actual personal eminence. To be Lord Mayor even during the year of an Exhibition, or when a Prince comes of age, can hardly be looked upon as an achievement entitling a man to rank with Havelock or Outram. It certainly has been the practice so to consider it; but precedents are losing their weight, and as precedent is departed from once in this re-election of the Lord Mayor, we shall not be sorry to see it discarded a second time, in the forbearance to bestow on him this rank merely because he is Lord Mayor.

That his personal character, and the respect in which he is deservedly held by his fellow-citizens, would furnish no insufficient reason for granting him the dignity of which he is so desirous, we have on another occasion expressed our not reluctant opinion; all that we contend for now is that the mere attainment of the mayoralty should not of itself be considered a necessary passport to an honour which ought never to be given but as a reward for acknowledged eminence, of brilliant achievement, or of public virtue.

#### A NEW TRAIT OF A "HOLY FATHER."

An incident has recently occurred at Florence and at Rome, which must neither be passed over in silence nor soon forgotten. It will be in the remembrance of our readers, probably, that a Papal gendarme, who was killed at Florence, in a conflict with the populace a few weeks ago, was honoured by a grand funeral, and high mass, and attendance of great people of all sorts, &c. It was evident that the Papal Government were anxious to make as much capital out of the affair as possible. Every effort was made to discover the criminal who had struck the fatal blow, but unsuccessfully. A man, however, was arrested on suspicion, named Locatelli. He protested his innocence of the deed with the utmost energy. He was, however, brought to trial, if any process of the Roman tribunals deserves such a term, and, of course, convicted. There was no decisive evidence to the fact, and it is to be observed that, even if the accused had struck the blow which took the gendarme's life, the act would not have been murder, but what the Italian law calls "*rissa*," a quarrel, and what we call chance-medley. Locatelli might have been killed instead of the soldier, had the chance of the fight so turned out. The blow, by whomsoever struck, was struck in self-defence, although against constituted authority; and nothing proved that he who struck it did so with any intention of taking away life. Nevertheless Locatelli was condemned to death; but the sentence was not ordered to be executed in the regular course, but was laid before the Pope personally, to take his pleasure on the subject. As the "Holy Father" took time to consider the case, it was thought certain that the capital punishment would not be carried into execution.

The grounds of conviction, it should be mentioned, were so very unsatisfactory and imperfect, that although it had been originally determined to

shed blood on this occasion, even the priestly tribunal which sentenced Locatelli, recommended him to the mercy of the "Holy Father!" thus endeavouring to ease their own consciences of the innocent blood, and throw the burthen on the tiara'd head itself. The recommendation was rejected! The Vicar of Christ found himself able to take the burthen of that act which the subordinate "ministers of Christ" had not dared to venture on. The matter stood thus, when, on the 17th of September, in Florence, a man involuntarily presented himself before the chief criminal magistrate of the city, and declared that he was the individual who struck the blow which had killed the gendarme, and that he now stated the truth in justice to the prisoner Locatelli. The authorities at Florence lost not a moment in telegraphing this fact to Rome, and in reply to their communication received the intelligence that LOCATELLI HAD BEEN HANGED THE DAY BEFORE! The shriek of execration and indignation which arose throughout the city as soon as these tidings were known, may be imagined; and men with lips white with hate, bade each other remark, that this shedding of innocent blood was the personal act of their "Holy Father"—the result of his own personal, deliberate, and well-considered will! This is the manner in which his sons are treated by that self-styled Vicar of Christ, the "mild benevolence" of whose personal character is always specially excepted from the censures cast on the atrocities of his government by writers who know just this much of the man and no more, that they or their friends were graciously smiled on by the unmeaning and imbecile features of the Priest-King, when admitted to gratify their heretic curiosity by staring at the strange phenomenon. It is stated and believed by many in Florence, that the real case was worse even than that above related. Many persons vehemently assert that the Florentine telegram *did* arrive in Rome before the execution, and that the sacerdotal hangmen refused to suspend it, saying that the story was a mere invention to balk them of their vengeance. There is reason, however, to believe, that the first version of the story given above is the correct one. Should it be otherwise, we shall have sure means of obtaining certain information of the fact, and shall not fail to let our readers know the truth.

If the effect of the tidings of this judicial murder was strong at Florence, living in safety under the protection of its laws and Parliament, it may be imagined what it must have been in unhappy Rome. Think what the feelings of men given over to this priest Moloch, bound hand and foot by the fiat of a foreign despot, must be towards "the generous ally," who thus proves his friendship! Is it imagined that the goaded men, who, with clenched fists and upcast eyes, exclaim, "How long, Oh Lord, how long!" feel less hatred towards the powerful despot who holds them down under his heel, than they do towards the feeble tyrants to whose cruelty they are handed over? For some time past a change of tone in the manner in which France, the French Emperor, and the French alliance are spoken of generally by the Italians, has been gradually becoming more and more evident. "We have found out at last what French generosity means!" "We have paid their bill! what more do they want of us?" "We have learnt to our cost the price of alliance with a despot!" These are the sort of phrases which may be heard both in Italian drawing-rooms and in Italian workshops. And this last event at Rome has been very strongly felt and commented on in this sense. It is insisted on, that not only is the French Emperor responsible generally for all the misery and misrule at Rome, and the still more widely spread calamities resulting from the conspiracies and intrigues hatched under the shelter of the Papal Government, inasmuch as but for his armed intervention, the nuisance would be abated forthwith; but that the French Government and its agents in Rome are responsible to Italy and to Europe for every abomination and atrocity which the Government of the Priest-King commits. For these things do not, and cannot take place without the cognizance of the French authorities. It has been seen again and again that they do not scruple to interfere when it suits them to do so; that, if they cannot in every case triumph over the *vis inertiae* of the Papal *non possumus*, so far as to effect all that they may wish to be done, yet most assuredly they have only to express their will to ensure the leaving of any special deed undone. And all Italy feels not only that France is guilty of this Papal murder, because she alone gives the dead Papal Government the vampire-like power of doing evil, but that France was an accomplice and abettor of the deed, in that being cognizant of it, and perfectly able to prevent it, she did not choose to do so.

Here is a specimen worth giving, of the sentiments that have been awakened from one end of Italy to the other by this new act of Papal barbarity and barbarism. It is from the *Nazione*, a paper of very moderate tone, and a supporter of the Government:—

"Henceforward," says the indignant writer, "it is time to call things by their right names! It is time to leave off talking of the Vicar of Christ, and to say that the King of Rome is not merely a dupe, but is guilty of all the acts of his Government. Tolerance has already passed its limits. It is now ten years that we have been striving, while condemning his infamous Government, to hold the king of it guiltless. But it is high time to lay aside the indulgent and respectful falsehood! We have stood by and witnessed a ten years' story of iniquity. Was the Holy Father ignorant that all the sovereigns of Europe gladdened the hearts of their subjects again and again with amnesties? Whom did he ever pardon? Not thirty thousand political exiles; not four thousand prisoners incarcerated on the same grounds. He pardoned THREE thieves and forgers on the occasion of his journey to Bologna. While even the furious King of Naples was commuting his capital sentences, the Vicar of Christ sent the hangman to execute five hundred sentences of death in the miserable cities compelled by foreign arms to obey him. He saw the tears of a thousand mothers begging of him the lives of their sons; but no tear ever dimmed his own eye at the harrowing spectacle. And, proud of



a history thus glorious, he cries to all the winds of heaven, that his reign is legitimate, and his rebellious subjects reprobates. No! He who tramples on all rights, human and divine, has no rights. And if king he be, his throne is vacant in the presence of the Son of God!"

But, as the writer goes on to show, this deed, which is now revolting Italy from the Alps to the Sicilian sea, is nothing new in the Fasti of Pius the Ninth. In the city of Fermo, in the year 1855, the priestly Government wished the death of three citizens, Joseph Cesellini, Ignatius Rosettani, and Henry Venezia. And this was the way in which they attained their end. And be it remembered that the following facts are as much authentic history as the election of Pius to the Papedom. The Government bribed an assassin, and promised him his pardon, on condition of swearing that the three men, for whose blood the priests thirsted, were his accomplices in a murder of which he was guilty. Witnesses proved that Cesellini was ill in the hospital on the night when the murder was committed; and the books of the hospital were produced, showing that on that night such and such drugs were administered to him. These witnesses were imprisoned, and in prison, *somehow or other*, they died. But before the day appointed for the execution of the three men, the bravo, unable to bear the remorse, which sits so lightly on tonsured heads and priestly hearts, revealed the whole truth, declaring the innocence of the men against whom he had been bribed to give false witness, and showing that he alone had been guilty of the crime. ALL FOUR OF THEM WERE PUT TO DEATH.

And similar stories might be multiplied, if time and space allowed. But if they do not allow us now and here to write the story of acts of the Government of Pius the Ninth, which would even yet strike the world with horror, notwithstanding its experience of priests and priestly rule, Pius the benignant may rest assured that the time and the occasion, and the pen and the proofs, will not be wanting. All is safely registered. All will be told from one end of Europe to the other, and mankind shall for generations to come add the name of the Ninth Pius to the list of the Borgias and the Medici.

#### AN INSTITUTION WORTH REMEMBERING.

TRAVELLERS, whose veracity is proverbial, assure us that in Algiers, and some other countries where plumpness is an essential ingredient in female beauty, dogs are a favourite article of diet, and are accounted not only delicate but fattening. In the provincial districts of our own island a belief is very generally entertained that similar fare is spread upon many tables in London, and that many a lady's poodle, after having been enticed away from her Belgravian door, re-appears in her dining-room in the form of sausages. And this belief is confirmed by the positive assertion of Mr. Robson, who, some time ago, was wont nightly to inform his Olympic audience, that in a mutton pie, which had formed the *pièce de résistance* of his frugal supper, he recognized the flavour of his own long-lost Tray. If that admirable actor was not deceived by his own too tender recollection, we feel sure that the incident was one of rare occurrence. The food of the very poor in the metropolis would not perhaps always bear a strict analysis, but the truth is that Londoners know the value of living dogs too well to sacrifice them prematurely for the table. An animal of a superior breed shall not only be inexpensive to keep, but may even bring in a clear income of £50 or £60 a year to a man. Management and dexterity are of course required to effect this result, but is it likely that geese which lay golden eggs like these should be killed?

Let a practitioner of the requisite abilities become familiar with three or four good-looking dogs, and he need never suffer want while they continue in existence. He watches over them as a father watches over his children. Even if he finds it expedient to part with them for a time, he follows them with gentle solicitude. He is never easy when they are out of his sight; and after bearing the separation as long as possible, the depth of his feeling usually enables him to attract to his side again the lost treasure. There is considerable skill in all this, and perhaps few men possess it in a greater degree than William Neal Kindillon, at present involved in a little difficulty with the police through the partiality he has evinced for dogs of respectable descent. He suffered his weakness to carry him a little too far, and these are the circumstances which have brought him to grief.

A City merchant owned a Scotch terrier of "great beauty," and while temporarily absent from London, he entrusted it to the care of a lady of his acquaintance. This lady deemed it prudent one evening to give the animal an airing in the vicinity of Hyde-park; but she had not proceeded far when she was surprised, as many others similarly circumstanced have been surprised before, by the discovery that the dog had "gone." The owner was informed of the mysterious disappearance, and knew at once that his only plan was to offer a reward for the recovery of the animal. This advertisement was the means of introducing him to Kindillon, representative of the Metropolitan Society for the Recovery of Lost and Stolen Dogs, and a sworn foe to all dog-stealers. Kindillon was a man of few words—£5 was his price for restoring the Scotch terrier. He was sure that it was the merchant's dog his friend had in his possession; but in what way he gained the information was his own secret. He would only admit that the animal was somewhere in "Whitechapel," and resolutely refused the offer of its owner to accompany him to the spot for the sake of identifying his property. Kindillon suspected mischief, and disarmed suspicion by referring to "several noblemen and ladies of rank to whom he had restored lost dogs." He consented, however, to accept £3 as his reward, and after a little hesitation his terms were

accepted. An hour and a half afterwards the merchant found Kindillon sitting contentedly in the counting-house, "and the dog chained to the leg of a desk." The merchant does not seem to have duly appreciated his visitor's ingenuity. He paid the money, but told Kindillon that he was either a thief himself, or was connected with one, and then made arrangements to have his mode of operations investigated before the magistrates.

The dog-tracker was in a great dilemma. He wished to go home before being taken to the station-house, and had the request been indulged, an interesting little record of his past exploits would never have been laid before the public. The honest man was shown, by documents in his possession, to be the dog's true friend. He had traced dogs for her Majesty and members of the peerage, and had been desired by "several of his noble employers" to form a Society, where a register might be kept of lost dogs, and where their owners might regain them with very little difficulty. Kindillon followed the suggestion of his noble employers, and his agents appear to have been distributed over every part of London. By his instrumentality many a Skye terrier was placed in safety. When he had to deal with a lady, he sometimes received £5 for his trouble; but men, being by nature less confiding, regarded him with some degree of doubt, and he was glad to take £1 from them. In the special instance of the merchant to whom reference has been made, the lost dog was originally bought for £2, but it had been "lost" so often that it had, "from first to last," cost its owner nearly £10. Kindillon and his colleagues knew the animal. It was a favourite in their "Society." Kindillon restored it once too often. Had he found a fresh owner for it, he might even now be presiding over his useful and excellent institution. As it is, the friend of "that faithful animal, the dog," lies in prison, and Skye terriers are bereft, for a season, of his disinterested ministrations.

Obviously there is great art in dog-stealing. The skulking vagabonds whom one meets in the streets, carrying puppies under their arms, are too clever for the general public. They belong to a Society. If they sell a dog, they know how to regain it in less than a month. They suffer a sufficient interval to elapse for the owner to become attached to his purchase, and then the dog is safely lodged at the office of some "Society." In due time the inevitable advertisement appears, the reward is secured, and the dog is returned,—but only to find its way back to those who have shielded it from its earliest years. The unsuspecting victims pay their money over and over again, and institutions like that founded by Kindillon flourish. And thus we see how it is that people gain a livelihood by dogs. They are perpetually on the look-out for favourable specimens of that interesting tribe. They know exactly where a handsome dog may be picked up at any moment. They will take an order for one of any particular breed, and with the aid of the Kindillons of their tribe, it is certain to be produced at the prescribed time. The system works well, for when a person has lost a dog he is generally very willing to get it back without asking many questions. We have heard of ladies who paid for their dogs five or six times over in this way. The police seem to be unable to put an end to a vile scheme of extortion and robbery, and we shall very likely soon hear of additional organizations under the management of such men as this Kindillon. Emphatically, the "Metropolitan Society" is an institution worth remembering; but if everybody who loses a valuable dog were to follow the course taken by the merchant of Fenchurch-street, we apprehend that there would be a sudden end to all agencies of the kind.

#### OUR RETARDED PROGRESS.

THE increase of late in the trade of our long-peopled country is quite marvellous to those who recollect the stagnant or retrograde condition of the previous period, and the theory then prevalent by which our old policy was defended, and the conscience of our rulers was kept quiet. Imports and exports together, the increase has been from 260 millions in 1855 to 376 millions last year; or nearly 45 per cent. in five years. At a progress so different from the general march of society with one exception, we should be lost in wonder were not the causes, a change in our legislation, and the discovery of new and large supplies of gold, familiar to all. The progress, however, has been fluctuating. In the five years, 1848-1853, our export trade increased 90 per cent. In 1854, when the Russian war began, and in 1855, through which it continued, trade declined; but between 1855 and 1857 it increased no less than 28 per cent. It declined again in 1858, to increase between that year and 1860 no less than 23 per cent. This rapid and great increase of our business, and our opulence, explains the case, we had almost written the indifference, with which the difficulties of the present year are met and surmounted.

We have now come to another period like that of 1854-5 of retarded progress, accompanied by apprehension that it will be of considerable duration and severity. In eight months our exports have declined nearly 6 per cent. Last year, in the same interval, they increased 12 per cent. Then our imports in seven months increased 15½ per cent. this year; in the same interval they have increased only 10 per cent., and if we deduct the greater amount of bullion exported than imported, they have increased only 6 per cent. The increase, too, is partly caused by enhanced price, so that we receive smaller quantities for the same sums. In seven months we have imported 8,111,742 cwts. of cotton, valued at £27,933,671. In 1860 we imported 9,222,140 cwts., valued at £26,708,078. In the present year the increase in the price of the raw material tends also to swell the declared value of our exports, without a corresponding increase in quantities, and the



decline in the declared value of 6 per cent. is an indication that the real falling off has been still greater, and trade little profitable.

We learn, moreover, when we subject our imports to a close scrutiny, that the difference in the value of the corn and flour imported this year over last year, is much greater than the increase in the value of our total imports. From this large but indispensable increase in imported food, it may be inferred that the people will have proportionably smaller means to purchase other commodities. The increase of the Customs revenue from the registration shilling on every quarter of corn imported, indicates a diminished revenue from other sources.

The revenue returns, accordingly, for six months of the financial year and nine months of the astronomical year, are, as compared to former periods, very unfavourable. So many changes, however, were introduced into our tariff and into our system of taxation last session, that an accurate comparison between the revenue formerly and now can scarcely be instituted. The fairest criterion of the failure or success of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, is the statement he made of what he expected the revenue would be at the end of the financial year in March, 1862. Of this period there is yet six months to come, and what may happen before they have passed we cannot foresee.

In the six months which have elapsed of the financial year, the increase in the Customs revenue is proportionably more than he expected. In the year he calculated on an increase in the Customs of £280,000; in the six months it has been £182,223. He expected, too, an increase in the Excise in the year of £28,000; in the half year the decrease is no less than £811,000. All the other items of revenue rather exceed than fall short of his expectations; but this large decrease in the Excise, if they should be completely fulfilled in the other cases, is a fatal blow to his hopes.

The decline is not on malt only, which the deficient barley harvest might explain, but in spirits, paper, and hops also. In the six months ending June 30th, the quantities of excisable articles retained for home consumption, on which duties were paid, were as follows:—Hops, of course, are not included.

	1860.		1861.
Malt, bushels ...	28,114,454	.....	27,585,017
Spirits, gallons ...	11,471,387	.....	9,235,439
Paper, pounds ...	98,039,172	.....	93,563,041

Thus the paper makers have taken care to bring as little as possible to charge before the duty was repealed, and the Excise has suffered from the repeal before it has actually come into effect. For the morality of the people the diminution in the consumption of spirits is a cheering symptom, and it is not lessened by an increased consumption of foreign spirits, as some of our contemporaries have stated. To the end of August, the imported spirits entered for consumption fell off to 3,217,291 gallons, from 3,612,311 gallons in 1860. On the contrary, the wine entered for consumption increased from 5,465,935 gallons in eight months of 1860, to 7,667,894 gallons in 1861. The diminution in the consumption of spirits, on the whole, home made and imported, of 2,530,000 gallons, is replaced by an increase in the consumption of wine to the extent of 2,201,959 gallons, a very important fact, which excites regret that the duties on wine—whether we had a treaty of commerce or not—were not largely reduced before 1861.

Partly in consequence of this great falling off in the Excise revenue, and the large expenditure for the past quarter, the liabilities of the Government for the ensuing quarter are very large. The income of the quarter, including £240,000 of the loan on account of fortifications, was £15,960,470, and the liabilities are £19,932,082. Deficiency bills, therefore, will be required to the amount of £3,962,612; and to this extent the Government must, somewhat to the injury of trade, draw on the resources of the Bank. The deficiency at the end of June was £2,066,001; at the end of March, £697,137; and at the end of December, 1860, £2,709,516. Thus, the deficiency at present exceeds, by £1,200,000, that of December. This deplorable condition of the Government finances, occasioned in a great measure by the Chancellor of the Exchequer having used his balances as a part of his ways and means, has been for some time known on the Stock Exchange. There is no concealment for the operations of the Sinking Fund Commissioners, and their inability to appropriate anything to the redemption of debt, affects the Stock Market. By the latest Bank returns, the Government deposits are now £5,810,424, against £7,092,681 at the same period in 1860, and against £9,268,239 in 1859. The financial position of the Government partly explains the present relatively low price of Consols. In some degree this is caused by the favour shown to the Indian five per cents., which, with a guarantee as good as that of Consols, yield a higher rate of interest.

The retarded progress in 1854 and 1855, followed by a rapid increase, forbids us to entertain, on account of present retardation, any serious apprehensions for the future. Our free trade opens the whole world to our energies, and on them we must rely. There is, however, at present, a manifest tendency to a slower increase than of late in the national wealth; and when it is recollected that all future operations are founded in hope, and that the law of accelerated progress requires as high a rate of interest on the savings of every year as on the capital previously saved, it seems fair to conclude that a time is approaching when, without much actual distress, considerable disappointment will be experienced. We have obviously arrived at a period of retarded progress; how long it will last, and how severe the pressure may become, it is impossible to foresee.

### "SHORT TIME."

A cry has gone forth through the length and breadth of our manufacturing districts, and the hearts of thousands recoil with terror and dismay as it is echoed in their lowly abodes, for "short time" is a phrase pregnant with ominous import to those whose hands are hardened with toil, and whose features are pale and thin from the effects of ill-paid and excessive labour.

No doubt there are many who will escape from the ordeal comparatively unscathed, but, to the great bulk of the operative classes, "short time" signifies a period of miserable stint, bitter suffering, and all but hopeless despair; a time when all, excepting the simplest necessities of life, are denied to the working-man and his family; a time when the toiler's cupboard is empty, his grate devoid of fuel, and his room stripped of its scanty furniture, for the purpose of obtaining bread; and a time when stunted factory children repeat, with fearful emphasis, Ebenezer Elliott's touching lines:—

"Father clammed\* thrice a week,  
God's will be done!  
Long for work did he seek,  
Work he found none.  
Tears on his hollow cheek,  
Told what no tongue could speak;  
Why did his master break?  
God's will be done!"

Unlike the curse of strikes, "short time" is the result of causes over which, in most instances, neither employers nor employed have the slightest control. In the present case it has arisen from the apprehended scarcity of our cotton supply from the United States.

Ever since the commencement of the disastrous intestine conflict in that country, the manufacturing population of Lancashire has looked forward, with gloomy fears, to the future, and at last behold their direst forebodings in a fair way of being realized. Yet, amid all the doubt and uncertainty, a faint hope was entertained that peaceful counsels would prevail, and that further strife and bloodshed would be stayed.

Colonel Fremont's proclamation has dispelled even this last chance, and the natural consequence is, that the import of cotton into Liverpool is decreasing, the price rapidly rising, while, to add to the difficulty, Americans themselves are competing with English purchasers in the cotton markets, and thus increasing the anxiety and perplexity of the Lancashire manufacturers, who find themselves face to face with the long threatened danger of a cotton famine! Yet, so keen are the feelings of the factory operatives on the subject of slavery, that they would encounter all the privations which they see impending with resignation, if they could believe the emancipation of the American negroes would be ensured by the struggle now going on in that country. But, when they find themselves the helpless and suffering victims of what can only be at present regarded as a party conflict, can we wonder that other and far different feelings are beginning to take possession of their breasts, which may possibly urge them into the rash advocacy of measures, which in their calmer moments they would repudiate with scorn and derision? It is the empty belly which makes the Chartist, and a starving people become the most merciless of reformers.

It is no common trial time, when manufacturers deem it imperative on themselves to issue such notices as the subjoined—

"To the Workpeople employed in Chorlton Mills.

"We think it right to warn you that, in consequence of the expected scarcity of cotton, it is probable that the cotton mills in this country will be compelled to work very short hours, and many of them may have to close entirely, during the approaching winter.

"In order to lessen the distress which such a state of affairs must necessarily bring about, we earnestly advise all persons concerned to exercise the utmost economy and foresight now, and lay by as much as possible, in readiness for the time of trial which may so soon overtake us.

"August 26, 1861."

"BIRLEY & Co.

Neither is it any ordinary crisis in the history of labour, when blessed with a plenteous harvest, and at peace with all the world, England beholds the mill-doors closed on throngs of her dispirited operatives, who hopelessly drag their weary limbs to the cheerless homes in the humble districts, which, for many a day to come, will echo with the sad, heart-rending sympathy of wretchedness and woe.

The Manchester and other provincial papers contain, almost daily, accounts of mills commencing to work four, instead of six, days per week; and of other mills being closed entirely, and leaving the hands to shift for themselves.

What are the poor creatures to do? We know that they should have been more economical, that they should have avoided the public-house, that they should have refrained from foolish strikes, that they should have provided for "a rainy day," and that they have not done so; but are we, therefore, to leave them to their fate? True, they have totally disregarded the simplest principles of political economy, but *preaching* is of no avail now, *action* is what is required. Something must be done, and that too very speedily, or the long, cold, and dreary months of winter will find England shrinking with fear at the haggard and desperate aspect of her starving operatives, who, famished and hunger smitten, brood with dark scowling brows over their real or imaginary wrongs, and lash their souls into the fierce relentless determination of revenging themselves on their fancied oppressors. Are these words exaggerated? No one who has perused the "Nil Durpan" of the people will dare to answer in the affirmative. Those poets of the people, such as Ebenezer Elliott and Gerald Massey, men who, whatever be their faults or

\* *Clammed*, a Lancashire phrase, signifying starved.



failings, but too truthfully uttered in rugged strains, the thoughts, feelings, wishes, and aspirations of those amongst whom their earlier fate was cast, may give us some insight into the history of those whom—

"Famine had smitten  
Its pride of life low,  
And agony written  
On heart and on brow;"

and who shriek out in their bitter despair,—

"I'd work, but cannot, starve I may,  
But will not beg for bread;  
God of the wretched! hear my prayer,  
I would that I were dead!"

If ever there was need of kindly words, of practical benevolence, and of genial sympathy toward those whose lot, even in the best of times, is one continued struggle with the cares and toils of poverty, it is at the present day, when the storm-clouds are slowly gathering around.

The working men know that active and beneficial measures are being taken to lessen as much as possible the danger to which they are exposed, and a few words of kindly encouragement at the right time may perhaps enable them to sustain with more fortitude the soul-crushing and enervating influences of such periods as that with which we are so unhappily threatened.

#### THE THEATRES.

ALTHOUGH the autumn season is not usually a very prosperous one to managers of theatres, they have no reason to complain of the measure of public support they are at present receiving. People returning to town after summer tours have not yet settled down into their ordinary stay-at-home habits, and consequently their search after amusement is a little more keen than it has been for some few months past in London. The attractions held out to them are varied, if not very striking. They may see a new actor at the Haymarket, new "pieces" at the Princess's and the Strand, and at Covent Garden Mr. Mellon will provide for them any evening an excellent selection of music, irreproachably performed. But there is nothing at any of the theatres to induce a visit from the merely occasional playgoer, nor is it probable that there will be until Mr. Glover's opera of "Ruy Blas" is produced under the direction of Mr. Harrison and Miss Pyne.

It is never a very pleasant thing to witness a Shakspearian work on the stage of the Haymarket. The very scenery looks painfully out of place. This week "The Merchant of Venice" has been produced, with the special purpose of introducing to the English public Mr. Booth, the son of a once celebrated rival of the elder Kean. One could go to see this gentleman with all the greater interest if his appearance had not been heralded by a volley of exaggerated puffs, brought over with him, it may be, from America, but little calculated to create a favourable impression here. Had Mr. Booth been satisfied to make his qualifications known by the fair exercise of his profession he might have achieved an average degree of success, but the public were led to expect a great deal from him, and consequently they are not likely to be satisfied with the little he has to give. There is nothing very original, and there is nothing very meritorious in Mr. Booth's rendering of *Shylock*. There is some thought in his conception of the character, but it is a mistaken kind of thought, and we feel a consciousness that Mr. Booth nowhere interprets the *Shylock* whom Shakspeare designed to place before us. Unfortunately, his physical powers are opposed to his becoming an effective actor. His voice is rather unpleasant, and his countenance lacks expression. In these respects—as also, so far as we can judge, in his natural ability,—he is immeasurably inferior to M. Fechter. There may be Shakspearian characters which suit him better than that he is now attempting, but it can scarcely be expected that he will realize the expectations we were asked to entertain concerning him.

Mr. Brougham's comedy of "Playing with Fire," at the Princess's Theatre, is not calculated to remove the prejudices against the stage that still exist among a large portion of the community. The story is foolish and unnatural, and the "moral" of the piece is that newly-married people are always stupidly jealous, and that they cannot begin too soon to test each other's affection by "flirtations." The marriage state, in fact, is what Mr. Brougham undertakes to make us laugh at, and even this bald idea is not carried out with any degree of ingenuity. There are plenty of stage tricks in the comedy; but apart from ludicrous situations, great poverty of imagination is exhibited in the production. The company make the very best of the materials at their disposal, and Mr. Brougham himself performs with his usual tact and cleverness.

Barlesque still reigns at the Strand, and, judging from the nightly attendance, the public by no means share Dr. Johnson's objections to puns and punsters. "Esmeralda" is a collection of jests of indifferent quality, and Mr. Byron's chief object seems to have been to write a part adapted to the eccentricities of each of the performers at this little theatre. Whether he improves his own powers of dramatic authorship by the task is a question we may leave him to decide. Those who can laugh at distortions of language, comic dresses, and extraordinary grimaces will be very well entertained with Mr. Byron's work.

At the Adelphi Theatre the "Colleen Bawn" is nightly thrust into the lake, and Miles na Copeleen is as gallant as ever in taking a "tremendous header" for her rescue. Surely the actors and actresses in this play must be heartily weary of the unbroken monotony of their parts! Mr. Emery

as *Dannyman* is new, and there is a fresh *Shelah* in the person of Mrs. Lewis. M. Boucicault's American play, "The Octoroon," is again promised. —Mr. Robson has received another warning against over-exerting his powers. The other evening while performing he fell into the arms of an actor in a fainting state, and his name has since disappeared from the bills. If he is wise, he will not renew his labours for some time to come, and then content himself with performing two or three nights a week. Does he forget the example of his predecessor at the Olympic? —At the Lyceum the comedy of "Woman" is still being played with fair success, and at Covent Garden Mr. Mellon has brought forward a fresh tenor-singer—Mr. Vernon Rigby. He is young, and has hitherto sung, we believe, at one of the music-halls. It will be some time, perhaps, before he gets rid of music-hall style and manners; but that he has a voice of great promise is undeniable. It is sweet in quality, but has been very much neglected, and very badly used. If Mr. Rigby will go through the necessary degree of hard work, and depend less upon his high notes for effect, he will eventually take up a foremost place in his profession. But at present, excellent as his voice naturally is, it is rather disagreeable to listen to him in consequence of the rugged, careless manner in which he goes through the music assigned to him.

#### FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

##### PARIS.

THINGS are less embittered than they were between Paris and Turin, and those who know the *dessous des cartes* in this capital of intrigue, see a sign of the better understanding in the increased danger of Switzerland. "Annexations" and "compensations" are once more the order of the day here, and it is presumed that Italy must be brought to adopt the same system, and that Prussia perhaps may. If Turin behaves at last with the subservieny expected from her by her Suzerain, then, as I have told you, the Swiss question will be opened, and innumerable grievances will be discovered to be inflicted by the little Republic upon her powerful neighbour. The property and independence (!), nay, the lives even of French citizens, will be all at once found to be seriously menaced, and it is marvellous how suddenly terrible the descendants of William Tell will become. Already the *Constitutionnel* has begun this political dirge; and really the contents of one of its columns the other day were like the echo of some mediæval chronicle, in which are recounted the dark exploits of the *Heilige Vehm*, or of some lugubrious legend of Venice and the Council of Ten, when the fall of corpses into the back canals was no more extraordinary than that of a rat in the Seine. The official journal seems to revel in the fears it hopes to excite, and has recourse with a sort of gloomy glee to a Mrs. Radcliffe kind of phraseology, which, when one thinks whom it emanates from and whom it applies to, is really something funereally comical. The *Constitutionnel* has correspondents in the peaceable Calvinistic city who in the dead of the night hear frightful sounds of plashings in the water, and the mysterious plunge of something heavy falling they scarce know where, and then it is discovered that some innocent young Frenchman has disappeared, and it becomes absolutely unsafe for the most inoffensive-minded son of Gaul to walk the streets of Geneva after sundown. Somehow or other, these interesting victims of Helvetian bloodthirstiness either have no "friends" or their "friends" mourn but slightly over their loss, for nothing further comes of their disappearance beyond the fact of a theme being furnished to the Saga singers of the French empire; but there stands the legend, and simple-minded people in outlying provinces are impressed with a sad notion of what horrid brigands "those Swiss" are. It is, to be sure, the tale of the wolf and the lamb with a vengeance; but there is no form Louis Napoleon likes better for the melodramas he proposes to enact on the vast stage of Europe.

A personal acquaintance of mine has just returned from Biarritz, where he lived in the close intimacy of the Imperial circle, which he describes as strangely *sombre* and anxious. Amongst other anecdotes, the following may interest you: One day, a personage of some celebrity, speaking with the Empress of the state of the Père Lacordaire's health, was led into commenting upon the latter's reception at the *Académie*, and asked her Majesty how she had liked his speech. The Empress, with that incurable frankness which so annoys her consort, grew animated, and said, "Oh! I confess that when I heard him allude as he did to Tiberius, and stretch out his arm towards my seat, it was like a hallucination to me—the white monk's robe and emaciated face, and all together. It seemed to me as though he said, 'Tiberius, and there is his wife!'" For the truth of this I can vouch, and it only serves to confirm what is so well known on the state of nervous dread in which lives this rattling and seemingly "gay" court of the Tuileries.

A marriage and a death have, within these few days, caused a sort of public emotion. The marriage is that of M. Plichon, a deputy of the Opposition, with M. Boittelle's niece, M. Boittelle being Préfet de Police of the Empire. It is said to be a *mariage d'inclination*, a thing strange at all times in this country, but very strange in this case, the bridegroom being fifty-two years of age, and the bride eighteen! The event called to Paris half the "Independents" of the Legislative Chamber, and the new married couple started for Rome immediately, in order to solicit the Papal blessing.

Now, this small fact alone is instructive for a foreigner. M. Plichon is what is termed *un bon bourgeois*; he belongs to no high family, has no connections, no name, no "traditions." He is essentially of the middle class, a man "like everybody else," and representing hundreds of thousands of the



same sort as himself. He is a well-to-do individual like M. Keller, and there is no particular reason why he should be more papal than his fellows. But M. Plichon is of the "respectable" and holds to being recognized as such, and therefore he sides with the Pope. This is worth reflecting upon, because it enables outsiders to judge of the real opinion of Frenchmen upon the Roman occupation. There is, perhaps, no one single subject on which we make such frequent and terrible mistakes as upon that of religion as concerns France. We are for ever misled by the excesses of a past that was by no means synonymous with permanent national feeling. In nothing has the Revolution left such a slight trace as in the matter of religion. The French are not by any means the French of Voltaire, and impartial Catholics of all countries are agreed upon this point, namely, that, in spite even of her eccentric literature, France is now by far the most religious country of the Catholic world. It is advisable we should ponder over this fact, because a vast deal of what we do and say, makes us uselessly hateful to the French, by hurting what, for them, are deep and serious convictions. We cannot understand that they should be so; but, on the other hand, the people here cannot understand our notions of absolute and universal freedom.

I must not omit to mention the death of poor Rose Chéri. I have seldom seen in this town any one so regretted, and really I should say not as a successful actress only, but as a most estimable and universally esteemed member of society. The position of Madame Montigny was one quite exceptional in France, where the prejudice against dramatic artists is strong beyond all belief. She was spoken of, and even spoken to, by people "in the world" as was no other actress that ever existed here; and largely she merited the distinction, for she did incalculable good to an entire class. In England, in Germany, and in Italy, as we know, this narrow-minded notion has no hold, but in France it would be impossible, for instance, to bring a French lady to the conviction that her son or brother could escape eternal perdition if he married an actress! The course of argument resorted to is this: you say, such an actress is well-conducted. In reply, the fact is denied; if it be maintained to be true, then it is asked *why* she should be so? it being of no earthly use to her! lastly, it is affirmed, that she will not be so long!

Well, Rose Chéri's life has been an example and an answer. She stood for ten or a dozen years alone; but there has gradually grown up a young generation of actresses in which virtuous women are to be found, and in which the public admits that they may be so.

This is a far greater curiosity in French civilization than foreigners are at all aware of. There are actually now some well-conducted French actresses in existence! Some who have the courage to deny that dishonour is a glory, and who have brought the French public into acknowledging that a virtuous woman may, if she is so determined, maintain her fair repute and yet continue upon the stage. It is an immense moral revolution, and no one has so contributed to bring it about as Rose Chéri.

On Sunday next his Prussian Majesty will sleep at Compiègne, and, if I am not much mistaken, forty-eight hours after Napoleon III. will be brooding over a severe disappointment. His is an extraordinary character! He puts himself into impossible situations, to get out of them he has recourse to impossible combinations, sets them on foot, makes them the object of his dreams, believes in them, and then, all at once, when trying to realize them, is put face to face with a resolute negative which sweeps down all the card-house! And then, as the French say, "*quoi après?*" Why, that is what we shall see. Probably "*après*" will be an attempt to attempt the Rhine! How many times over is all this comedy to be played?

#### "MY COAT."

"Going to tell me something about my coat! Why he might as well tell me that Queen Anne is dead," says the reader. And, indeed, the reader is not unreasonable. If he is not familiar with his own coat, it will be hard to say with what he is familiar. There may be "a nearer one yet, and a dearer one" in the shape of his under-clothing; still the relations existing between him and the first-named garment are presumptive evidence of a very close intimacy. Unluckily in this case, as elsewhere, familiarity has a tendency to breed contempt. Habit causes the owner to be very much disposed to take his outer envelope for granted; at all events he does not bestow much reflection upon its antecedents. He knows, and cares to know, no more about it than that his special artist has taken his order, and set down an item to his account. The item has been tried on, altered, and finally approved. That is enough. But there is a vast difference between the frowsy wool, as it appeared when first shorn from the back of the parent sheep, and the velvety fabric that greets the eye upon the disruption of the brown paper parcel, which protects the transit of the accomplished coat. On the processes which have worked this change, the wearer bestows no thought. To him a coat is a coat and nothing more. His heart never melts at the sufferings of the original material in its transitional state; how it has been delivered over to "devils" to be "teased;" how it has been "milled," and if not done for, at any rate "finished." Nor is his admiration excited by the perfection of the mechanical appliances which have facilitated these trials, and used them as means for producing so satisfactory a result. A fact or two from the factories may serve to dispel this unjust indifference.

This word, factory, itself at once reminds us of one, and that not the least of the hardships experienced by the coat, during its gradual progress from wool

to cloth, viz., the peculiar disagreeableness of its temporary habitation. The older woollen factories have generally a strong resemblance to a very dirty chapel, topped by a chimney instead of a steeple. The principal difference is, that the windows of the former are a trifle smaller, and that there are five or six stories instead of two. On entering, we very frequently find the floors covered to the depth of several inches with a soil of black grease, the conglomeration of year-long spillings from the oil-can. Grimy particles float in the air; unsavoury smells irritate the nostrils; a ceaseless whirr and rattle of machinery astound the ears; while up and down worn and very break-neck ladders, the operatives, shiny with sweat and smeared with dye, ascend and descend in the intervals of their employment. Such were the early surroundings of the apparel, which, in its later development, proclaims the exquisite. Surely after this the good coat has a right to a little retrospective consideration, in addition to the privilege of occupying those pleasant wardrobes where the good coats go, and where it nestles amidst lavender scent-bags, except when delicately unfolded and summoned forth to bask in the sunshine of the best society.

Other ante-vestmental trials may be divided into classes, according to the successive results which they are intended to accomplish. First, the wool has to be cleansed and disentangled. With the new wool there will, nine times out of ten, be a leaven of old or rag-wool. The latter is delivered by the fates that preside over factories to the "devil" to be "teased." A slight course of purgatory is the very first condition of its improvement. Strong as these expressions are, they are hardly exaggerations. The most rigorous Calvinist could not devote the sinner to more untender mercies, than those of the machine which bears this ill-omened name. The wool is tossed and whirled about, till the sheep that bore it would be puzzled to recognize its identity. It must, however, be consoling for it to know, that it is for its own good. By this and similar rough handling, yeapt "scribbling" and "carding," the whole mass, old and new, is rendered fit for a second series of trials. Having been torn to pieces, and thereby purified, it has now to be gradually twisted into ropes, which by proper mechanical manipulation eventually dwindle down to threads. The two parts of this course are called "slubbing" and "spinning" respectively—the agents in either case are "spindles." Upon these, as well as upon the "weaving" which follows, we need not enlarge; partly because the processes in question are not characterised by an amount of ill-usage sufficient to excite the sympathy of the indifferent, and partly because our readers very possibly know all about them. It is enough that the loom, by plaiting together and securing a vast number of threads, connects and turns out the woven piece, which is the rudiment of the textile fabric. But the loom has not been able to give it the closeness of texture and the power of cohesion requisite for the wear and tear of vestmental life. "Milling" is the very thing to supply these deficiencies. The embryo garment wants bracing, and "milling" is decidedly bracing. It is here that the patient, as if determined to be equal to the occasion, develops the qualities which are its special characteristics, and which constitute its peculiar worth. Having first been saturated with a liquor, of which soap and dirty water are the more mentionable components, it is subjected to a course of most unmerciful pounding at the hands of a series of gigantic wooden hammers, which come down on it with a thump like that of ever so many pavilours' rammers indefinitely magnified. This treatment might, at first sight, seem more likely to kill than to cure, but it somehow suits the constitution of the subject. The latter literally gathers strength from it. It "felts;" that is, what with the bath and the thumping, the constituent threads are drawn nearer to their respective neighbours, as if they instinctively knew that it is only on the Highland principle of shoulder to shoulder that they can hope to resist such potent onslaughts. Thus the whole piece diminishes in bulk, but acquires the necessary strength. It is this tendency to shrink under certain circumstances, which distinguishes woollen from worsted, and indeed from all other cloths.

All having now been done that can be done for the constitution, the time has come for consulting the appearance. The warehouse already looms at no great distance; but much remains to be undergone before our wool, now become cloth, can achieve an entry. Draggled, greasy, unsavoury, rough, it would as yet tempt no "traveller." It must be "finished." "Stoves" must cause the moisture and the evil odour to evaporate, "irons" must smooth the roughness, the nap must be "raised," and "shorn," and "raised" once more. This "raising" is nothing but a process of combing the surface with a proper machine, by which means the fibres of the wool are drawn up, and made as it were to bristle. In the case of the finer cloths, these are shorn and shorn again, until the glossy appearance, essential to any claim to the title "super-fine," is eventually attained. In the rougher materials the shaving is dispensed with, and the object is so to raise the fibres as to give the particular character of roughness required. Of these we have specimens in the imitation seal-skins, and the various sorts of hairy stuffs used for over-coats. Manufacturers have made fortunes simply by raising the nap in a pattern which has caught the public fancy; and often the parts of the factory where the particular operation is going on are boarded off, and locked, lest inquisitive eyes should detect, and loquacious tongues disclose, the secrets of the machine which operates. When, on passing the steps of the Rag and Famish, we observe a large majority of the heroes thereto belonging clothed in some particular combination of fuzz and velvet, we may feel sure that over that fuzz there is rejoicing in the West Riding. London artists have pushed the "neatest thing out" among their military clients, and the result



is a good store of golden guineas placed to the credit of the inventive "finisher."

As the treatment nears its conclusion, the nomenclature of its several parts becomes less terrifically metaphorical. After having been "teased" and "milled," the poor cloth has certainly a right to expect that its worst trials are well nigh over; indeed, its constitution, with all its "felting" powers, could hardly be expected to stand a repetition of these incidents of the cure; consequently, we find things in general made much pleasanter. A genial, we will not say an oppressive, atmosphere, is provided for it in the "stoving" or "drying" room; whilst even the combing its surface into proper condition becomes a kind of carriage exercise, seeing that it is performed in an engine called a "gig;" and it must indeed be devoid of all feeling if it is not gratified by the attentions bestowed upon it, in the way of folding, and patting, and pressing, previous to its final reception in the warehouse.

How the whole system answers every male reader can judge, by looking down at the individual case as exhibited in his own outward man. The gloss of the new coat will show the "finish;" the stoutness of the old coat will prove the original goodness of the material, and the artificial development of its strength. We have only touched upon one or two of the means taken to bring about these results. In all, the various processes amount to some two score, most of which are performed by very elaborate machinery, under the care of well-paid and intelligent operatives. If our sentimental disclosure of the hardships submitted to by the cloth fail to awaken a curiosity for further information, we may add, that the woollen manufacture was the original one of the country. So precious have its interests been considered, that laws have been passed enacting that the very shrouds of the dead should be made of wool; while even to this day the Lord Chancellor takes his seat on the woolsack, in allusion to the supposed foundation of our national prosperity.

#### MODERN ENGLISH WOMEN.—No. XIV.

##### THE SELF-RELIANT WOMAN.

THE self-reliant woman has two larvæ or masks—two distinctly marked and differing presentments; as the one, she is the hard, unfeminine female dragoon who squares her elbows at difficulties, and fights her way through life with a defying assumption of manliness more aggressive than self-defensive; as the other, she is the quiet, self-possessed lady, serene in her own dignity, fertile in her own resources, of admirable temper and unimpassioned judgment, whose admiration of life is common sense, and who never borrows from another's mind material for her own decision on any matter whatsoever. The self-reliant woman of this type is extremely valuable in the world of womanhood. She fills up the gap between the plastic and the organizing, and claims from both sexes some of the special grace of each. All her sisters love her, and to the young she is mother, guide, and protector, loved and respected to a degree no one else can ever attain; for with no one else can there be the same union of the man's force and the woman's sweetness—with no one else the mysterious harmony and sympathy of sex. Most women can remember some one, strong, capable, calm, far-seeing, who exercised an almost unbounded influence over them when young, who taught them their first lessons in practical life, and whom they loved with that strange and solemn devotion of girlhood for its first mature friend: and that some one was the self-reliant woman. Had she not been self-reliant she would not have been influential.

The self-reliant woman is generally the executive woman as well, and can do whatever she undertakes. She is always ready, and should an accident, for instance, occur, does not lose her head as so many others would—does not take to hysterics, or faintings, or nerveless pity; but is at once keensighted and prompt, seeing what has to be done, and doing it without hesitation or excitement. As a nurse she is a very treasure; ever quick and decided, understanding the minutest shade of the duties before her, and able to perform them as clearly as she comprehends. Indeed, no woman who has not self-reliance can be even a tolerable nurse, whatever her amount of special knowledge; for she will be always in doubt as to whether her ears or her eyes are to be obeyed, and if the dead letter of instruction is to be set aside or adhered to, whatever the new reading of the disease. Nurses destitute of self-reliance are as completely wanting to their profession as those distracting creatures who never think the doctor worth obeying at all, but take the management of the case upon themselves, and kill or cure by the rule of thumb alone. Neither can a woman be a rational mother, or a steady housekeeper, who is not self-reliant; for she will always be blown about by every wind of doctrine, and ready to accept as gospel truth each scrap of outside experience which may fall in her way. The really self-reliant woman is never good bait for quacks. There is something in her nature so utterly antagonistic to the whole tribe of shams, that she rarely takes to them on any occasion; though her self-reliance might be an additional reason why she should stand by them steadily enough, if once adopted. For which reason she is the most desirable convert possible; and worth half a score impulsive enthusiasts, ready to sign their names to black to-day, and to head a testimonial to white to-morrow. When the self-reliant woman does adopt a new method, she adopts it thoroughly, with no misgivings as to her own infallibility. Self-reliance makes the best tiara of all.

The self-reliant woman is often a social reformer; nay, she it is who has inaugurated all the new phases of woman's life, and opened up the latest

paths. She it is who has taken out M.D. diplomas, nursed wounded soldiers, given lectures, studied from the life in art-schools, walked the hospitals with the students, pleaded her own cause in law courts—but never to a favourable issue, however cleverly done, the coalition being as yet too strong; and who—all honour and praise to her for that same!—has taken up the question of criminals and sinners, seeking to soften the one and purify the other, without thought of herself or what the world would say. Yes, nobly enough in this instance did she touch pitch and was not defiled; but her own purification was in her self-reliance, and the intensity of her conviction that, being right in her own eyes, she was also absolutely right in spirit and in truth, made her mission accepted and her endeavours availing.

The self-reliant woman is a great traveller. She has voyaged all the world over, alone and unarmed, trusting to her scarlet "pants" to frighten the wolves of the northern woods, and, confiding in her courage and sex, has found the chivalry of even savages and Bedouins equal to the occasion; she has braved the grizzly bears and the wild Indians of the North American forests, and kept a bold heart and a cool head whatever the danger to be confronted; she has gone to the gambling-houses of San Francisco, and staked her dollars between the muzzles of revolvers and across the gleaming blades of bowie-knives; she has sung to half-maddened diggers, flush with gold and warm with passionate blood; she has seen the exiles of Siberia, and heard the lash of the knout; has ridden through Damascus unveiled, and run the risk of being stoned for her daring; has penetrated into Moslem harems, and, disguised as a boy, has even ventured into the sacred courts of mosque and monastery, and trod where woman's step had never fallen before; she has been everywhere and has seen everything, from the Peak of Teneriffe to the heights of Chimborazo, from the pyramids of Egypt to the pagodas of Nankin. At home she travels in another way,—out of the beaten paths which Mrs. Grundy has set and sown, into wild, uncultivated places, where never a female gardener has been before her. At any time she may be seen doing all the small unconventionalities which get her quizzed and laughed at by the Grundyites, some of which unconventionalities fructify into a richer usage for the whole sisterhood, while others we would not wish to see blossom out into even the tiniest spathes. It was she who first slammed back the doors of Hansom cabs and climbed up on to coach-tops; who tried to make Cremorne respectable, and to give a flavour of matronly dignity to the Surrey and Vauxhall; who has even horsewhipped presuming men when forgetful of themselves and her; who manufactures all sorts of little economies, and never minds what her tradespeople or the servants may say; who is always right in her own eyes, and cares nothing for the suffrages of the million; and who would not give one of the battered old feathers out of her hat for all the applause, or what people call "moral support," in the world. She is moral support enough to herself, and values nothing that goes by that name half so much as what she makes for herself.

The self-reliant woman is never a special favourite with men. They have always a cargo of hard words which they unload at a moment's notice and fling against her with both hands. Even when essentially womanly, a loving wife, and with her maternal nature fully developed, she does not please; and for one man who will be found to praise her, twenty will prefer that characterless sister of hers, sitting in the shadow of any stronger life that may be over her, plastic, influenced, the echo of everyone's word, the reflection of everyone's colour, who looks for all help from the outside, and never knew self-reliance or self-help since the day she was born. But until it is finally conceded that the national fancy of men is to fashion the national character of women, we must deal with them according to the higher law of human development, and not according to the liking of individuals. And if self-reliance be at any time a good thing—if to hold fast by one's convictions, indifferent to the sneers of the world—if to be always master of one's own mind, and never in slavery to fear or to passion—if to have one's reason and better faculties in working order, that so one can be always useful and an unfailing resource to the needing—if courage is good, and respect of oneself is good—then self-reliance is as fine a thing in women as it is in men, and the difference of sex cannot transform a virtue into a failing. But the individual woman can so transform it, and by being aggressive and offensive, change all that was originally most admirable into so many unlovelinesses of no delight to anyone. This is the distinction between the female dragoon and the lady in her own right—the self-reliant woman who squares her elbows, and jostles her neighbours, and she who keeps her arms close to her sides, content to maintain her place with the rest, not seeking protection, and not endeavouring to dispossess.

When the self-reliant woman is a female dragoon, we may drop one of the vowels and call her dragon instead. She is intensely unlovely, and in no wise to be upheld. When she has no sense of sex, and classes sensitiveness with weakness—when she is coarsely indifferent to opinion, and callous to all teaching of a better way, if unlike her own using—when she is presumptuous rather than well-judging, confident and dashing rather than capable and executive—when she is more bold than strong, more defying than self-supporting, then she is fair game for manly satire, and no fit object for manly love. She does not much care for this—she and love not being very well suited together; for indeed she ranks this with all the other weaknesses of womanhood, and would gladly see her sex freed from the tender tyranny of their affections. The self-reliant woman of the dragoon class cannot love, not though she be wife and mother, and fulfils her duties to the ultimate of their dull uttering; for love is pleasant slavery and dear dependence, and



what has such an one to do with either? But she can coerce, and interfere, and rule, and govern, and seek to shape every living soul within her sphere according to the questionable pattern of her own mould. Indeed, is not this the point of difference between the two, that the self-dependence of the one is active and aggressive, of the other passive and simply resisting? And what I would especially insist on is, that a woman may have certain qualities usually held to belong of exclusive right to men—as this very quality of self-reliance—yet by her own womanly sweetness may so use and flavour them, may so eliminate all that is coarse and mannish from them, as to make them only enhancements of her womanly beauty, and the further perfecting of her womanly nature. What I would wish to show is, that to be strong does not necessitate the being coarse; to be capable does not necessitate the being aggressive; to be self-reliant does not include self-assertion; nor does power in any direction tell against womanliness in any form. The most complying wife may be also the most self-reliant, with too much tact not to understand the markings of the boundaries, and too much womanliness to mistake assumption for capacity. Self-reliance, like everything else, has its two sides, and for every defect on the one, is a corresponding beauty on the other.

#### NEW DISCOVERIES AT WROXETER.

WE are enabled to give the first engraving which has yet appeared of an inscribed monumental stone discovered a few days ago in the cemetery of the Roman city of Uriconium. The stone is about two feet broad, and on the upper part are the sandalled feet of the figure of a man which has once surmounted it. The inscription has consisted originally of eight lines, but the middle and lower parts are so much rubbed, that until it has been much more carefully examined, it would be in vain to attempt any conjectural reading of it. It is evident that the individual it commemorates was a Roman soldier; his name appears to have been Flaminus Titus Polba, or Polea; he was forty-five years of age, and he had served twenty-two years. It would appear that this service had been performed in more than one legion, and there are circumstances about the inscription which would lead us to believe that it is of a very early date. Our engraving is made from a very careful drawing by a talented young artist of Shrewsbury, Mr. Hillary Davies.



We are glad to be able to announce that these interesting excavations, which have been suspended during a greater part of the year through want of funds and other circumstances, are now proceeding actively. The excavators began somewhat more than a fortnight ago on the site of the cemetery of the ancient city, and they have already disclosed a number of interments, accompanied generally with glass vessels and pottery, such as were usually interred with the dead. In every interment yet found, the body of the deceased has been burnt and reduced to ashes, and the belief appears to be thus confirmed that the practice of cremation of the dead was continued in Britain to the latest period of the Roman occupation. The excavators have come upon a paved street or road, running from the city through the cemetery, which may be termed, like that of Pompeii, the street of tombs, for it seems evident that a line of the principal tombs ran along on each side of it. Two walled tombs, close to the northern side of this street, have just been opened, but they have not yet been sufficiently explored to enable us to give any account of them.

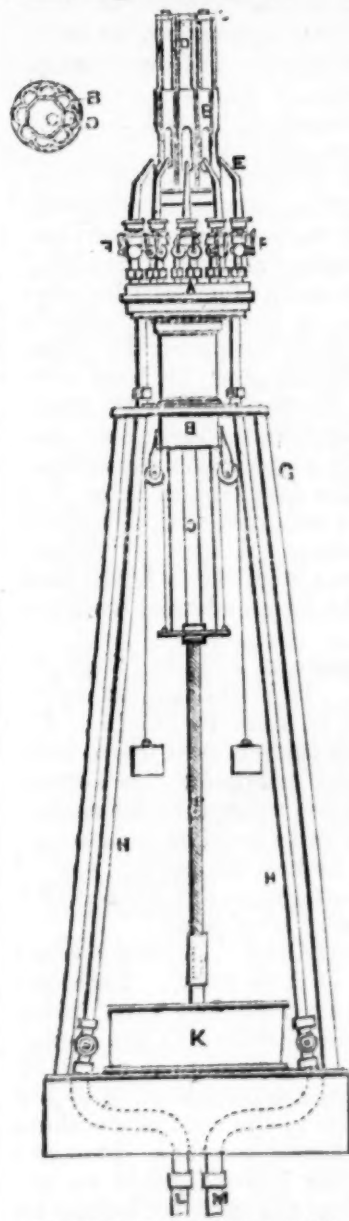
#### THE NEW LIME-LIGHT.

EVER since the introduction of gas, men have been attempting to find some still more powerful light as far surpassing that as it does any generally used means previously adopted. Many years ago an intense light was exhibited by lecturers to popular audiences by turning on jets of hydrogen and oxygen upon a ball of lime, which was thus raised to a point of brilliant ignition.

This was the "Drummond light," so called after Lieutenant Drummond, who invented it and applied it practically in the triangulations of the Ordnance Survey of Ireland and Scotland, on some of the lofty stations, where it was of great importance in those operations to have certain determinate signals. From Holyhead to Ireland the light was visible sixty-four miles; and the same was the case from Ben Lomond to Knock Laid, a still greater distance, ninety-five miles; thus demonstrating the practical unlimitability of the lime-light for the most extended terrestrial purposes. But there must have been some difficulties in the management of such a pure and brilliant light to have prevented its coming into general use, for it is five-and-thirty years ago since Drummond gave us the knowledge of it. And there was a difficulty. We do not mean in its costliness, for the procuring of oxygen was then a dear process; but there was a difficulty in keeping it, so to speak, a-light. Not that the lime burnt away, because it is not combustion which takes place at all. It is ignition or incandescence which gives the light, and this will take place as well in a vacuum as in the air; but the lime crumbled under the intense heat, and fell away in powder. Hence the Drummond light was laid aside by the public, but not by some individuals, who, from fancy or other motives, continued to try to remedy this one defect, and to render the light perfect and useful.

Mr. Renton and others who thus devoted their time and their intellect to this point have produced a steady and continuous lime-light by the use of clock-work, which constantly moves up to the point of the impingement of the jet of gases a fresh portion of the lime-wick; and for the more extended purposes of lighthouses and other such objects, where very strong, permanent, and distance-carrying light is required, a combination of several lime-wicks and their attendant gas-jets is made use of, so that the volume of light is powerfully increased and all danger of extinction removed, for, if by any possibility one or two should become useless, which is not now likely, the others would continue to give off their powerful cones of rays with undiminished brilliancy.

Mr. Renton's, or as we should rather call it, the apparatus of the Universal Lime Light Company,—for, like all companies, it aims at the universal adoption of its special article,—has very lately been placed for an experimental period of three months in the lantern of the South Foreland Lighthouse, from which the electric light has just been removed. In the annexed illustration, A, represents the base containing the gas chambers; B, the outer case or tube; C, the inner case or tube to which the lime-wicks are attached; D, the lime-wicks, one for each jet of gases; E, the jets through which the gases issue upon the lime; F, the regulating cocks, two for each jet; G, the supporting stand; H, the conducting tubes for the gases; I, the screw for raising the lime; K, the movement for advancing the lime; and L, M, the supply tubes from the gasometers.



The South Foreland Lime-Light.

Although the lime-light is something less intense than the electric, it has advantages over it. Nothing can make the electric light of uniform intensity. Every change of weather, every change of atmospheric conditions, influences the generation of electricity in the battery which supplies its force, and as the source itself is affected so must be the river of light which flows with such intensity but in such a narrow thread from an almost mathematical point between the charcoal ends of the conducting wires. The electric light, too, is enormously costly, and requires constant attention. An attendant watches it all night long, and if it go out, oil-lamps have to be supplied. It is, therefore, of importance to test a light which is now, by novel methods of producing the gases it requires at cheap rates, useable with greater economy than oil, and we believe even than coal-gas.

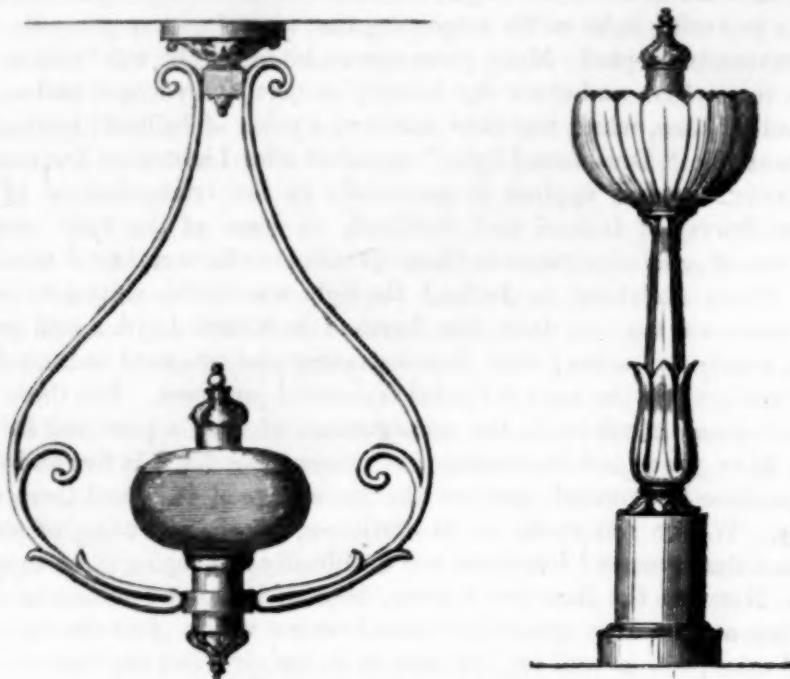
On its first appearance at the South Foreland its brilliant beam attracted the attention of the lighthouse authorities at Calais, and a commission of French savans came over to inspect it and report upon its nature and efficiency.

Aiming at the universality of the lime-light, the company have of course adapted it, through the use of compressed gases, to domestic purposes, and in a few years we may see our houses, our streets, and our shops, lighted by the same beautiful means which lately attracted attention at the New Westminster-bridge. Not only are colours perfectly distinguishable by this light, but it has this advantage for domestic use, that it generates no bad odours, it produces nothing, or at most a few drops of moisture by the union of the oxygen and hydrogen, for, as we have said, it is ignition not combustion which takes place.

For large factories, workshops, and public assembly-rooms, where the gas-lights now add heat and annoying smells to the other inconveniences of such crowded places, the lime-light would be a vast improvement, and as it requires no air for its support, it has been properly suggested that it might



well be adapted for coal-mines and other work where explosions now cause such calamitous losses to human life.



Lime-Light Pendant, and Lamp for Domestic Use.

For new things something may always be said in this age of improvement; but for the lime-light we think much may be with propriety. It is perfectly innocuous and extremely brilliant, and therefore possesses two of the greatest desiderata an artificial light can have.

#### POPULAR SCIENCE. GROUND-BEETLES.

(Continued from page 203).

THE tiger-beetles, forming the genus *Cicindela*, are not numerous in Britain, there being only five species. They are all of diurnal habits, but not early risers, waiting until the sun is well up before they start on their rambles; but having once moved they make up for previous inactivity by getting over the ground at a prodigious rate, assisted and impelled thereto by the length of their legs. But soon the impulse to advance induces them to spread out their wings, and fly for a short distance, and so they go on in the hot sunshine for hours, running and flying alternately. *C. Germanica* is, however, an exception in this particular, as it trusts to its legs only to accomplish the purposes of its existence, which, like those of its brethren, are to catch and eat other insects. It is a pretty, slender, green insect, local, but abundant on the coast of the Isle of Wight and Dorset. Another green species, *C. campestris*, is common everywhere in spring, constantly alighting on paths and roads, running for a few paces, and then flying forward and alighting again, as if desirous of showing his splendour and yet of avoiding capture. "And so he plays his part." The larva makes for itself burrows in the earth to the depth of a foot or more, carrying up the loosened particles to the surface on its broad flat head. When the den is completed the maker and master thereof stations himself just within the entrance, his head level with the surrounding surface, supporting himself in this position by means of two hooks mounted on a flexible tubercle attached to his back; and then woe to any unlucky insect that may unsuspectingly wander over the ambuscade, for it is instantly seized and dragged into the dark regions below to a fate which, as the romancists say, can be better imagined than described. This ogre of a larva has been felicitously described thus:—"Aspect vicious; temper ferocious; jaws stuck on the wrong way, like a figure-head shipped looking aft; head big; back humped, the hump adorned with two hooks."

Another tiger-beetle, *C. sylvatica* (Fig. 1), is common in June and July, on the wide, sandy wastes in the south of England. It is the largest native species, about three-quarters of an inch in length; of a bronze-black colour, relieved with three curved white spots upon each wing-case, the central one being the largest. This Bedouin of our deserts preys upon the defenceless insect-travellers who have occasion to be in or to cross his territories; and he apparently makes his roving way of life profitable, for he not only manages to live himself, but always to leave a race of predatory successors.

The other two species, *C. hybrida* and *C. maritima*, occur in profusion in several parts of the coast. They are of a greenish-bronze colour, with numerous small black impressions scattered over the surface of the wing-cases; the latter are also ornamented with three lunular white bands. Both species are much alike, and, indeed, by some authors are considered to be but one species; but besides having constant differences in the markings without intermediate gradations, the two kinds are never found together. However this may be, the lover of nature will not be the less delighted by the gambols of these wonders of the shore as they run and fly before his approach.

The family *Lebiadae* contains some of the rarest and prettiest of our native ground-beetles. *Odacantha melanura*, a narrow, elongated creature, with a green thorax and reddish-yellow wing-cases, lives in swampy places where the bulrush grows; in summer it may be found by searching in and about the foliage, and in the winter within the seed-heads of that plant, being in that situation secure from floods and storms, though we suspect that at times it falls a prey to tits and other inquisitive birds which at that season go about visiting the winter retreats of insects, pertinaciously inquiring if, and hoping that the tenants are quite well.

*Drypta emarginata* is also of slender structure; its colour is blue-green,

\* Letters of Rusticus.

with which its reddish legs contrast remarkably. It is a local species, and being of a retiring habit, was, until a few years ago, very rare; but it was then found in tufts of grass near Alverstoke, Hants, in great abundance.

*Polystichus fasciolatus* (Fig. 2) was also one of our rarities until 1859, when it was common under stones near Hastings. It is of a dark-brown colour with a broad, lighter-coloured dash down each wing-case, and is remarkable for the flatness of its form; a structure that enables it to get into crevices in the ground or between stones, either in pursuit of its prey or for its own security, with the greatest facility, as the collector soon finds to his dismay.

*Lebia cruz-minor* (Fig. 3) is a stout, handsome beetle, very shining and conspicuous. Its head is black, the thorax and wing-cases yellowish red, the latter ornamented with a broad, black cross of the form which antiquarians would call *cruz immissa*. This species had always been rare,

but of late years several examples have been captured near Holme Bush, in Sussex; *L. cyanocephala* and *L. chlorocephala* are both brilliant species, shining with a metallic lustre; and if they were larger would be very conspicuous. They are much alike in colour, the thorax being red, and the elytra bright green; but they are taken under different circumstances—*cyanocephala* in chalky places under various plants, *chlorocephala* generally distributed, and chiefly found in or about furze and broom bushes; besides, the former is only about half the size of the latter, and there is no doubt that they are perfectly distinct species. The brilliancy of these and other tiny insects is evidence that Nature bestows infinite art on little things, and that she often puts up her finest goods in small parcels.

*Brachinus crepitans* (Fig. 4) has a red head and thorax, and deep-brown wing covers. It is a comely though not a conspicuous beetle, neither is it rare, being found in many places under the spreading leaves of herbaceous plants, or under stones, &c., but it is remarkable for the power it possesses of making, in quick succession, six, seven, or more, miniature explosions, emitting at the same time a volatile, acrid vapour, which is not only visible, but may be felt by the eyes of the captor if they happen to be near. This explosive faculty has obtained for this beetle the name of "Bombardier." The uses to which he puts his artillery are not well known; we presume that, since the ammunition is soon exhausted, he usually reserves his fire for emergencies, and then uses it rather for defence than offence. We can imagine that if any insect—

"Sudden and quick in quarrel,  
Seeking the bubble reputation,  
Even in the cannon's mouth,"

were wantonly to provoke a display of the martial powers of *Brachinus*, it would not be inclined to repeat the challenge. But the title "Bombardier" does not seem to us to be sufficiently expressive, for, although the irritable little creature doubtless passes for a great gun amongst his fraternity, yet he rather resembles a model American citizen armed with a revolver, and the likeness is more complete if we consider the sharp jaws of *Brachinus* to represent the bowie-knives of the self protecting republican; but the beetle has this advantage over the man, that he not only discharges his weapon but carries it within himself always ready loaded.

The family *Scaritidae* has but few representatives in Britain, consisting of species of the genera *Clivina* and *Dyschirius*, of small size and insignificant appearance. They may be looked upon as the poor relations of a noble family, who have been expatriated from their ancestral quarters, or have been left behind when the greater and more gifted branches of the family migrated to a better climate. Poverty may be deemed infamous among hexapods as well as among bipeds, who knows? Nevertheless the family peculiarities are rigidly maintained among the remnant that is entitled to the name of Britons. The thorax is not joined to the abdomen immediately, but by an intervening waist, round which it does not require much exercise of fancy to descry a band similar to that worn by biped ladies; at any rate the waist, as with them, is nipped in, so that the creatures, both sexes, too, seem as if compounded of two distinct portions, slightly attached, and one almost shudders to think of the catastrophe of division which always appears imminent. This danger may be the reason why they frequent the banks of streams, the sea shore, or other damp places, thereby avoiding the risk of an accident that might happen if their bodies became dry. They are all furnished with strong fore-legs for digging into the earth, where they make for themselves burrows; they wear a perpetual suit of mourning, but, unlike other reduced respectabilities, the original lustre of their garments remains untarnished; and though they live in retirement they lose not their fair proportions, for they present the rotund appearance of those diners-out in society who eat what they like, and have enough of it too.

The family *Carabidae* contains the largest and gayest coloured species of our ground-beetles. *Carabus nitens* frequents moors and heaths far away from the human eyes that could appreciate its beauties. It is a most gorgeous creature, the thorax of burnished copper, the wing cases of metallic coppery green, each with deep furrows whereby the splendour is materially increased. Another species, *C. clathratus* (Fig. 5), only found in the north of Scotland and in Ireland, has also furrows down the wing-cases, each of which has several depressions in it of a bright golden copper hue; yet the ground colour of the insect being a deep bronze, there is not the splendour of the glorious *nitens*, nor is that want compensated by the superior size of *clathratus*. These two species may be considered the *élite* of the genus; of the others we need not speak, further than to say in passing, that when Shakspeare wrote

"The poor beetle that we tread upon,"

he probably alluded to *Carabus granulatus*. For when the first warm breath of spring comes from the south, and wakes up Nature from her winter trance, the great poet must have observed that the roads were strewn with beetles of this common species,





which, when roaming about at night, had not pondered the paths of their own or others' feet—had not been able to withstand the pressure brought to bear upon them, and so their mutilated bodies remained as evidences of their want of care and forethought.

In the family *Chlœnidae* are some remarkably pretty beetles. In the genus *Chlœnius* they are of a fine metallic green, to which is superadded a short silky pubescence, greatly increasing the lustre. *C. Schrankii*, which inhabits oozy places on the coast of the Isle of Wight, is the rarest and perhaps the most beautiful.

*Callistus lunatus* (Fig. 6), which loves the sunny slopes of chalk downs in the south, hiding in the daytime under stones and herbage, has its head black, the thorax and wing-cases red, the latter enriched with three deep black velvety-looking spots; this contrast of colour, and the delicately rounded form of this beetle, combine to make it the most elegant of our *Geodephaga*. Of the genus *Anchomenus* we have twenty species, all loving wet places; most of them are black, but there is a lovely and not very common one, *A. secpunctatus*, with the thorax green, and the wing-cases of a fiery-copper colour, which loves to exhibit its dazzling splendour in the full glare of sunshine to such of its fellow denizens of boggy ground as dare venture to look. Of *Pterostichus* there are about twenty species; but they are of an unattractive sombre hue. The genera *Amara* and *Harpalus* come under the same category, and the species, moreover, are so much alike, like the Cæsar and Pompey of story, that to distinguish them puzzles the young collector.



Finally come the *Bembidii*, numbering about fifty species, which, as a rule, are lovers of moisture, but some are to be seen in dry places; *B. lampros*, for instance, a bronzy fellow, who delights to roam about dusty paths and lanes in the hottest sunshine. They are all very active, though of small size; they are mostly of dark colours, but many are prettily and even gaily marked with light bands or spots. Many are very local; some are found only on the seashore, where part take to the shingle and quickly elude the hand that would capture them; and part burrow in the sand or mud. Some frequent the banks of rivers or the mud of estuaries, others haunt open ponds or pools in woods; in fact, in every place may be found some species or other of the *Bembidii*.

#### CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

How frequently it happens that a child's toy becomes in the hands of the experimental philosopher an agent by means of which some of the sublimest truths of nature are revealed. Perhaps the soap-bubble has been pressed into philosophic service as much as any childish bauble. Indeed, since the time that Sir Isaac Newton made use of them to investigate and verify the laws and properties of light, these delicate films, almost reduced to mathematical surfaces, have become as much the property of the experimental philosopher as the school-boy, and scarcely any popular lecture on chemistry is brought to a termination without their aid being invoked with the object of confining, and at the same time setting afloat into the atmosphere, the detonating gases extracted from water. The more the subject of the soap-bubble is contemplated, the more mysterious appear the agencies at work within it, and the forces which hold it in equilibrium. An infant can produce or shatter it at a breath; but the life of the oldest philosopher is insufficient to exhaust the study of its mechanism.

Professor Plateau, who has for many years been occupied in researches on the figures assumed by a liquid mass when the action of gravitation is removed and it is in a state of repose, has recently made the curious discovery that a film of soapy water is so thin that the action of gravity upon it can generally be regarded as inappreciable in comparison with that of molecular forces. These investigations had hitherto been conducted upon masses of oil immersed in a mixture of alcohol and water of exactly the same specific gravity as the oil. The oil in this case acted as if it were devoid of weight, and the molecular forces acting within it could be readily experimented upon without the interference of gravitation, which, under ordinary circumstances, masks their action. The figure of equilibrium thus assumed by the oil when at rest is a perfect sphere, and this being set in rotation throws off rings and discs, splitting up at a certain rapidity of revolution into smaller spheres, which revolve round the central one, presenting a remarkable similarity to the celestial phenomena of planets with attendant moons or rings. The sphere of oil, when in the alcoholic liquid, could easily be converted into a thin hollow bubble by inflating it with the same alcoholic mixture just as we obtain in air a soap bubble filled with air itself. Reasoning in this manner Professor Plateau arrives at the curious result that, with a liquid acted upon by gravity and in a state of repose, he can obtain, on a large scale, all forms of equilibrium which belong to a liquid mass without weight. This is effected by forming the liquid into thin films—by making soap bubbles, in fact. Floating in air these bubbles are spherical, and acting as if they were devoid of weight, offer a far more simple and convenient process for investigating these phenomena than the old method, which, moreover, requires a certain amount of manipulative skill in order to arrive at perfectly regular results.

A philosopher cannot, however, be occupied all his time blowing bubbles, if he wishes to investigate their properties. The very short existence of the films obtained from common solution of soap (rarely lasting two minutes), rendered it essential that some better liquid should be found; and the Professor has at last been fortunate enough to discover a liquid which furnishes in the open air bubbles of great durability.

This liquid is formed by mixing, in proper proportions, glycerine, water, and soap. The mixture must be prepared when the temperature is at least 66 deg. Fahrenheit. Dissolve at a gentle heat one part by weight of Marseilles soap, previously cut into thin shavings, in forty parts of distilled water, and when the solution is cold, filter it. This done, carefully mix in a flask, by violent and continued agitation, two volumes of glycerine with three volumes of the above-mentioned solution, and then allow it to stand. The liquid, which is at first clear, begins in a short time to grow turbid. After some days a white precipitate will be seen to have risen to the top of the liquid: draw the clear portion off with a syphon, and preserve it for use. This liquid, which is called *glyceric liquid*, gives films of great permanence; for instance, by means of a common tobacco-pipe, a bubble 4 inches in diameter may be

blown, which will remain in the open air of a room for three hours, if supported upon an iron ring  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inches in diameter. If kept under a glass shade, a bubble has remained unbroken for three days.

By the use of bubbles of this liquid, all the figures of revolution, such as *catenoids*, *onduloids*, and *nodoids*, may be imitated with great readiness. These experiments are very curious; the Professor states that they are readily performed, and there is a peculiar charm in the contemplation of these figures, so slender, almost reduced to mathematical surfaces, which make their appearance united with the most brilliant colours, and which, in spite of their extreme frailness, endure for so long a time.

#### SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

##### ASTRONOMY.

THE MINOR PLANET NIOBE (71).—The following elements and ephemeris of this planet have been calculated by M. Answers:—

$\tau$ = 1861. August 28.5. B.M.T.	1861.	R.A.	Decl.
$\lambda$ = 317 26 46	Oct. 5 .....	21 35 22 .....	+0 0'1
$\pi$ = 221 9 19	6 .....	21 35 5 .....	0 0'0
$\Omega$ = 316 10 59	7 .....	21 34 40 .....	0 0'0
$i$ = 23 8 56	8 .....	21 34 34 .....	0 0'0
$\phi$ = 9 23 56	9 .....	21 34 21 .....	0 0'0
$\epsilon$ = 0.16324	10 .....	21 34 10 .....	0 0'0
$\mu$ = 779.53"	11 .....	21 34 0 .....	+0 0'1
$\alpha$ = 2.7465			

We have also received elements and an ephemeris by M. Tietjen, but as they differ but slightly from the above, we do not insert them.

COMET II. 1861.—The following elliptic elements are by M. Trettennero, of Padua:—

$\tau$  = 1861. June 11.363. G.M.T.

$\pi$  = 248 53 44  
 $\Omega$  = 278 59 17  
 $i$  = 85 19 3  
 $\epsilon$  = 0.97432  
 $p$  = 181.3 years.

M. Trettennero calls attention to the fact that the elements resemble those of the comet of 1684, and the near coincidence of the intervals strengthens the idea.

THE MOON during the present month will unfortunately be very low about her first quarter, when she is so interesting an object even for small telescopes; but the full, or hunter's moon, leads on to a recurrence of the phenomena of the harvest moon, though in a less marked degree, the waning phases rising night after night with a much less interval than at other seasons of the year. The cause of this variation will be easily comprehended when the position of the lunar orbit in the sky is sufficiently fixed in the mind. Supposing the moon's monthly course to be marked out by a bright line in the heavens, at the present time of year (but more especially during the past month) that part of it which rises in the evening and during the early hours of night slopes much less towards the horizon than at other seasons; a much greater length of it consequently comes up into sight in an hour's time; and a twenty-four hours' motion of the moon eastward, that is, from full towards last quarter, makes much less difference in the time of its rising than would be the case if its path sloped downwards more rapidly, as is the case at other seasons of the year. Any one who will observe the corresponding risings of the moon, at and after the full, in March or April, will be struck with the amount of the difference. There is, however, another cause at work which prevents this phenomenon from being always unvaried. Were the moon's orbit fixed constantly in one position, like the apparent path of the sun in the heavens, these effects would be always equal in degree. This, however, is not the case; the lunar path has a small inclination to that of the sun, and so intersects it in two opposite points, called nodes. From the attractive power of the sun upon the moon, which draws it somewhat out of its course, these nodes, instead of being fixed, are continually shifting, and in 18 $\frac{1}{2}$  years make the whole circuit of the sky: hence, at one time the slope of the moon's path as it rises in the east will be somewhat greater, at another rather less, than the medium inclination, and thus the phenomena of the harvest and hunter's moon will vary in degree during the above period, being most fully displayed in 1857, and being now on the decrease till they reach their minimum effect in 1868, after which time they will increase again.

During the present month the moon will occult, or pass over, six fixed stars of sufficient size to render the observation, weather permitting, an interesting one.

PROJECTION.—The very singular phenomenon of "projection," by which is meant an apparent advance of the star in front of the lunar disc, before its disappearance, has never yet received any satisfactory explanation. It is not confined to fixed stars, as planets also have been observed to be affected in a similar way at the time of their occultation; but whatever may be its origin, it is self-evident that it is not an astronomical fact, but an optical deception.

##### CHEMISTRY.

NEW METAL.—The discovery of a new element, to which the name of dianium has been given, has recently been announced by the celebrated German chemist, Kobell, making, with cesium, rubidium, and thallium, the fourth simple body added by modern research within a comparatively short space of time. This substance has been derived from a metallic acid extracted from the tantalite of Tammela or dianite, of which the specific gravity is 5.5.

This acid belongs to the same group as the tantalic and niobic acids, being distinguished from them by the following reactions:—

Precipitated from a hydrochloric solution by ammonia, and heated with chlorhydric and stannic acid, it gives a deep blue solution, the colour of which is not destroyed by filtration, while the tantalic and niobic acids give a bluish solution, which is rendered colourless by adding water and filtering.

If the tin be replaced by zinc, the dianic acid solution is not blue, but the



precipitated acid takes the colour, parting with it, however, in the filter. When equal quantities of the three acids are boiled in platinum vessels, each becomes a milky yellowish liquid; but a small quantity of water added to the diamic acid clarifies it. When mixed with diluted sulphuric acid, and heated, it takes an azure blue colour; on the addition of a few grains of zinc, the same effect is produced by a little water, but in this case the colour remains in the filter. Hyponitric acid gives similar results, but tannic acid becomes of a pale blue, which it loses if water be added.

M. Rose considers these reactions to be due to the presence of tungstic acid; but M. Kobell states that he has proved this opinion to be erroneous, by experiments undertaken specially to test its accuracy.

## GEOLOGY.

**FOSSIL DOLPHIN.**—An extinct species of dolphin, discovered in the tertiary marine deposits of the department of Hérault, has recently been described by M. Gervais. It bears a strong analogy to the *Delphinus Sowerbensis* of the present seas, which attains a length of from 15 to 18 feet, and is sometimes, but very rarely, seen on our coasts.

The fossil species appears to have been much larger, and to have reached the length of about 24 feet; its teeth also differ considerably in size from the living animal, in which they are much smaller, and less uniformly arranged.

M. Gervais proposes to call this new fossil *Mesoplodon Christolii*, after the late M. de Christol, by whom the one described was found.

## NATURAL HISTORY.

**ELECTRICITY OF THE TORPEDO.**—M. Moreau has succeeded in collecting the electricity of the torpedo by means of the gold-leaf electroscope and a condenser similar to the Leyden jar. The operation is attended with some difficulty, the electricity being rapidly re-conducted from the collecting apparatus, owing to the humidity of the torpedo's tissues; hence it is necessary to break all communication between the apparatus and the torpedo as soon as the discharge is effected. In the case of the voluntary discharge of the animal, the operator is never in time to break the communication; the discharges, therefore, were induced artificially, by exciting the nervous system, and collecting the electricity by means of an arrangement which he describes at some length. On connecting the under part of the torpedo with the ground, and the upper part with the electroscope, the latter immediately becomes charged with positive electricity; if, on the other hand, the upper part of the fish is connected with the earth, negative electricity results.

**REMEDY FOR THE PHOSPHORUS DISEASE.**—This terrible disease—occasioned by the workmen breathing an atmosphere impregnated with the fumes of phosphorus—attacks the bones, mutilating them and sometimes eating them entirely away in a frightful manner. M. Poussier has now announced that bichromates in general—particularly bichromate of ammonia—are antidotes against the ravages of this disease. We are not aware what experiments M. Poussier has made to test the truth of these statements; but the suggestion deserves attention from manufacturers of lucifer matches.

**PRESERVATION OF TIMBER.**—Dr. Boucherie's process for effecting this object by impregnating timber with sulphate of copper, is already well known. It is perfectly successful, but the cost of applying the preservative has hitherto prevented its application to many purposes where the preservation is as important as for railway sleepers and telegraph posts. To remove this impediment, Messrs. Dorsett and Blythe employ a new and more simple method of injection, which is to force into the pores of the wood the antiseptic liquid by means of a vacuum first produced in the pores, and, after the admission of the liquid solution, continued pressure of 120 lbs. to 150 lbs. on the square inch, in strong closed cylinders, that are not acted upon by the sulphuric acid in the salt of copper. Messrs. Dorsett and Blythe can inject the acid solution either hot or cold, without injury to their apparatus; whilst the cost is below that of creosote, the wood is perfectly clean and inodorous, is nearly incombustible, can be worked up for building and other purposes like unprepared wood, and can be shipped to any part of the globe, with ordinary cargo, without risk of injury from smell or otherwise.

## METEOROLOGY FOR THE MONTH OF SEPTEMBER DURING TWENTY-ONE YEARS IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF LONDON.

(By JAMES GLAISHER, F.R.S., &c., Royal Observatory, Greenwich.)

Years.	Mean Reading of Barometer at the Level of the Sea.	Highest Reading of the Thermometer.	Lowest Reading of the Thermometer.	Range.	Mean Temperature of the Air.	Difference of Average of Twenty Years.	Degree of Humidity.	Rain.
	In.	°	°	°	°	°		In.
1841	29.88	79.6	36.6	43.0	58.1	+1.2	85	15
1842	29.89	75.8	41.1	34.7	58.4	-0.5	89	22
1843	30.19	79.9	34.0	45.9	59.5	+2.6	85	6
1844	30.06	78.0	34.8	43.2	56.9	0.0	86	12
1845	29.98	73.5	33.4	40.1	53.6	-3.3	86	16
1846	30.00	80.4	39.2	41.2	60.1	+3.2	82	10
1847	30.00	72.5	32.0	40.5	54.3	-2.6	83	15
1848	30.01	78.8	32.8	46.0	58.8	-1.1	84	14
1849	29.94	79.0	42.7	36.3	58.8	+1.9	75	15
1850	30.11	70.5	39.0	31.5	56.4	-0.5	78	13
1851	30.20	76.6	37.6	39.0	56.9	0.0	72	14
1852	29.92	77.5	37.9	39.6	56.8	-0.1	75	13
1853	30.00	73.0	37.5	35.5	55.3	-1.6	82	12
1854	30.21	81.2	37.9	43.3	58.1	+1.2	75	9
1855	30.14	78.2	34.1	44.1	57.1	+0.2	78	6
1856	29.83	72.5	40.0	32.5	55.2	-1.7	75	17
1857	29.93	80.7	41.5	39.2	59.7	+2.8	86	13
1858	30.04	83.8	41.5	42.3	60.3	+3.4	78	10
1859	29.88	76.0	41.5	34.5	56.7	-0.2	73	17
1860	29.94	69.7	35.7	34.0	53.4	-3.5	88	17
1861	29.90	81.1	37.7	43.4	57.1	+0.3	79	15

The pressures of the atmosphere are shown in column 2. The mean, or average, is 30.01 inches; the result for the past month is 29.90 inches, being eleven-hundredths of an inch below the average of the preceding twenty years; this value was exceeded no less than sixteen times, and been less on four

occasions only in this interval; the highest value of this element was 30.21 inches, in 1854, and the lowest was 29.83 inches, in 1856.

The highest temperatures of the air reached in this month in each year are shown in the next column; in the month just passed it somewhat exceeded 81°, whilst in the same month, last year, the temperature was never so high as 70°. The extreme high temperature of last month has been exceeded three times only during the preceding twenty years, viz., in 1846, when it was as high as 86.4°, again in 1854, and lastly in 1858.

The lowest temperatures of the air in several Septembers since 1841, are shown in column 4; in 1861 it was 37.7°, and by comparison with the other numbers in the column, it will be seen that this value has been exceeded eleven times, and been less on nine occasions during the past twenty years; the highest was 42.7° in 1849, and the lowest 32.0° in 1847.

The mean high day temperature in September was 68.3°; the mean for the past twenty years is 67.4°; therefore the days have been about 1.0° warmer than usual.

The mean low night temperature in September was 48.2°; the mean for twenty years is 48.9°; therefore, the nights have been about 0.7° colder than usual.

The extreme range of temperature in each month is shown in column 5; in the month just passed it was as great as 43.4°, and by comparing it with the numbers in the same column it will be seen that it ranks amongst the greatest, it having been exceeded four times only within twenty-one years; the greatest range was 47.2° in 1846, and the least was 25.5° in 1853.

The mean temperature of the air in each month is shown in the next column; in the month just passed it was 57.1°; the average for twenty years is 56.9°, therefore the air has been a little warmer than usual. As compared with last year it was no less than 3.3° warmer, and is the warmest September since 1858.

The departures of the monthly means from their average are given in column 7; the sign — affixed to a number indicates that the mean temperature was below, and the sign + implies that it was above the average of twenty years, by the numbers placed opposite to each sign. Thus, September, 1861, was about 1.2° in excess; in the preceding year, 1860, it was 3.5° in defect. In 1845 this month was too cold by 3.1°, and the next year was too hot by 3.1°, as compared with the average; thus two successive Septembers differed 6.2° from each other, showing a difference half as large again as that between the Septembers of 1860 and 1861.

The mean temperature of the dew point for September, 1861, or that temperature at which the water present in the air, in the invisible shape of vapour, would saturate the air, was 50° 7'; the mean or average is 51° 1'; therefore the temperature of the water in the air has been somewhat less than usual.

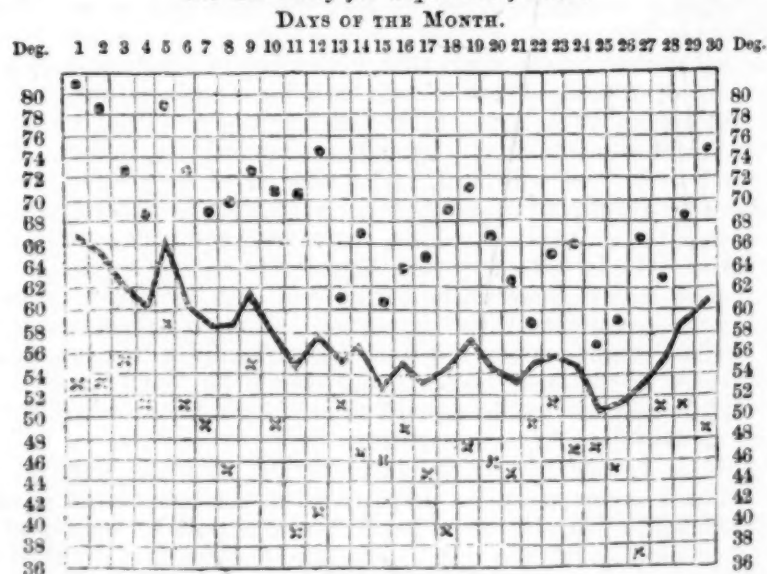
The degree of humidity in the air in each month is shown in the next column. That for 1861 was 79, on a scale supposing the air when quite dry to be represented by 0, and quite wet by 100. The mean for twenty years is 81; therefore the air has been somewhat less humid than usual; this element in the same month of the preceding year was 88, implying an unusual humid state for September, and thus a marked difference is shown in this element between this and the preceding September.

The number of days on which rain fell is shown in column 9. In the month just passed it was 15; in the year 1842 it fell on 22 days; and in 1856, 1859, and 1860, it fell on 17 days in each year; in the years 1843 and 1855 it fell only on 6 days in each year. The average number for September is 11.5.

The amount of rain collected in a gauge placed on the ground is shown in the last column; in the month just passed it was 1.5 inches, the mean or average is 2.5 inches from 47 inches, therefore the fall of rain has been deficient in amount. In the years 1841 and 1842, the fall was 4 inches in each year, and nearly as large in both the years 1852 and 1859; in 1851 there fell 1.5 inch only. The deficiency of rain this month in the south of England, however, is an exception to the weather generally over the country, and particularly in the midland counties; at many places more rain fell on one day, viz., September 15th, than in the whole month; in the south of England, in some places, more rain fell in the last month than has fallen in September for many years.

The prevailing direction of the wind was S.W.; the relative frequency of the winds, reduced to the cardinal points, were N, 2; E, 2; S, 10; W, 16.

Diagram, showing the maximum, the average, and the minimum temperature of the air daily for September, 1861.



The accompanying diagram shows at a glance the distribution of temperature during the month. The continuous black line indicates the mean or average temperature day by day; the dot above the line shows the highest point to which the temperature rose during the day; and the star or asterisk below the line, that of the lowest temperature which generally happened at about sun-rise. The mean or average temperature for the month is 56.9°; therefore if the wavy line be compared with an imaginary line passing about



mid-way between the lines 56° and 58°, it will be seen that till the 10th the temperature was above the average on every day; and from the 11th to the 27th—with the exception of the 19th, when it was above,—the temperature was below the average; and on the 28th, 29th, and 30th days, it was again above; on the last day the temperature rose as high as 74°, and the mean of the whole day was as high as 61·5°, and this is the only instance, as far back as 1814, of the temperature of the last day in September exceeding 60°; and there are only three instances, back as far as 1840, of a temperature higher than 60° on any day during the last week in September—viz., Sept. 27 in the year 1849; Sept. 28 in the year 1855; and Sept. 29 in the year 1858.

The characteristics of the past month were a rather low barometric pressure, very warm weather at the beginning and towards the end of the month, and cold about the middle and till the 27th day; a deficiency of rain, and a prevalence of S.W. winds; and upon the whole month rather warm days and cold nights.

The mean temperature of the month of September, in groups of ten years, reckoning from 1771, is as follows:—

The mean temperature of the ten years ending	1779 was 55·6	The mean temperature of the ten years ending	1829 was 56·7
"	1789 " 55·7	"	1839 " 55·4
"	1799 " 55·8	"	1849 " 56·8
"	1809 " 56·6	"	1859 " 57·7
"	1819 " 57·8		

## CORRESPONDENCE.

### THE REAL CAUSE OF THE NEW ZEALAND WAR.

THE author of the following letter, sent through a friend in England, who has kindly placed it at our disposal, is Mr. Frederick Carrington, who was the Surveyor-in-Chief commissioned to colonize and to form the town of New Plymouth in Taranaki, and also to survey, apportion, and to settle the whole district containing the disputed lands which form the subject of the war. He has been familiar, from the first, with the phases of the whole negotiation, and is probably at this moment the individual, from his uninterrupted connections with the colony, the most competent to inform the public of the rights and wrongs, and of the truths of the dispute:—

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—That the principal home newspapers have taken a deep interest in the unhappy state of affairs in New Zealand, is evidenced by the various important articles which have appeared in plenty in THE LONDON REVIEW and all the journals. Whilst it is a source of great gratification in the colony that its difficulties have attracted so much attention in authoritative quarters in our native country, it is clear that the discussion in the journals has grown voluminous, controversial beyond need or warrant, and in fact mystifying. To this bewilderment and irksomeness to the peruser, may be now added the dangerous fact, that ingenious arguments, put forward in influential quarters, have induced many to receive as facts, statements which are real only to the imaginations of the propounders.

Not only is public opinion in England ill-informed as to the true causes and bearings of this impolitic and unfortunate war, but many even in the very colony are ignorant of the rights and wrongs of the question between the English Government and the natives.

Lamentable consequences result from the encouragement which the natives derive from their advocates and apologists, not only in the mother-country, but in the colony. Unauthenticated statements, bold assertions, fictitious narrative, special pleading, soft arguments—in fact, nonsense—have woven such a web of mystification about our right to the disputed lands, that, however reluctantly—as knowing something about the facts—I feel myself impelled to step forward, and offer to the public some stubborn truths in a circumstantial account of our acquisition of the Waitara and Taranaki districts.

I may remark, preliminarily, that I was the chief surveyor to the "Plymouth New Zealand Company, and the "New Zealand Company," for the settlement of New Plymouth. In December, 1840, and in January and February, 1841, I examined different tracts on each side of Cook's Strait, and sought in other places for a site for the settlement. In February, 1841, I finally determined on fixing the settlement in its, now, well-known place. From these reasons I happen to be most intimately acquainted with this New Zealand land question.

I may here observe that, to judge properly of the Waitara and Taranaki question, it is needful to remember that, when the site of the Plymouth settlement was selected, the whole district was "unowned," and was, in fact, abandoned ground. In the whole present province of Taranaki, which is sixty thousand acres larger than the four great English counties of Kent, Surrey, Middlesex, and Hertford, there were not more than—how many do you think, Sir?—fifty or sixty natives. This single fact is a whole bookful of commentary. These poor creatures were huddled close to the Sugar-loaf Islands; they were wretchedly clad, had neither garden nor plantation, and subsisted upon fern-root and fish.

Upon discovering the object of my coming among them, I was importuned to "bring white people" and to "settle" on the ground. The whole country was before me, "where to choose;" and I was urged to assume it "for my own people," so that the natives might be protected from their dreaded enemies, the Waikatoos; who, about eight years before, had made a raid upon them—under Tewherohero, the late king—tortured, slaughtered, and dispersed them, and had carried away captive nearly all whom they did not kill.

Were I to relate all the terrible scenes, and speak of the savage excesses which befell during this inroad, people would not be surprised at the terror the natives had of the Waikatoos, nor of their desire for their protection by the Europeans in their occupation of the country.

It was in October, 1839, that Colonel William Wakefield, the first agent of the New Zealand Company, purchased from certain chiefs and natives driven from Taranaki, who were residing on Queen Charlotte's Sound and in other places to the north of the Middle Island, all their rights and claims, which,

as far as these people were concerned, conveyed all their ownership in the Waitara and Taranaki land.

In November, 1839, agents of the New Zealand Company landed on the Sugar-loaf Islands, about two miles west of the present town of New Plymouth, and purchased, on certain conditions, a continuous tract of land of the residents, which extended for several miles along the coast and also inland, and which space contained the whole of the Waitara and Taranaki land. The brig *Guide* brought the payment, and it was accepted and shared among all the resident natives. It was my intention, originally, to have placed the town of New Plymouth on the banks of the River Waitara, but on examination of the offing and the anchorage, and the mouth of the river, I found that the occasional surf and the tidal hindrances presented insuperable difficulties, and I therefore determined on placing the town on the spot on which it now stands.

When I commenced the surveying of the land, I employed Maoris, together with my own people. One morning the natives I employed became very troublesome, and, their number being increased by others, they all disrobed themselves of their mats, and, axe in hand, danced their savage "war-dance." But when they were appeased, we all left the ground and returned home. Upon inquiry, through my interpreter, as to the cause of the dissatisfaction, I found that it arose from their being promised presents, when the sale was effected, upon white people coming to take possession. And at this very time, notwithstanding their sale of the land, these people were in constant expectation of an attack by the Waikatoos, and set vigorously to work to build a "war-pa." On the 8th of March, 1841, I wrote to Colonel Wakefield, and asked for the promised presents, which he sent in the schooner *Jewess*; but both the schooner and her contents were lost near the Island of Kapiti in Cook's Strait.

It was some few months after the arrival of the settlers, which took place on the 31st of March, 1841, that Tewherohero, the late King Potatau, asserted a right to the whole of the district which I had selected. He sent one of his principal chiefs, with two hundred Waikatoos, to the spot, who danced their "war-dance," and told us that they were the owners of the country, and the people who were to be paid. The resident people of the country, who had before sold the land to the New Zealand Company, were present; but were cowed and overborne, and remained silent. When the Waikatoos had finished their "war-dance," they were informed that the Governor should be made acquainted with their claim. This was done, and, some time after, a deed was executed by the Waikatoos, conveying to the Queen the land they claimed, which included the whole of the Waitara and Taranaki country. I staked out the town, hereupon, and the suburban sections; installed the holders; and, the surveying of the rural land being advanced sufficiently for the purpose, I put the purchasers of it in possession; and I had commenced the making of an engineering and military map of the country, and had been invited by the natives to stay at their "pas" while the survey was going forward, when I was informed by the New Zealand Company that sufficient land had been surveyed. And here I may remark that the boundaries of the settlement of New Plymouth were first defined in the *Government Gazette* of September, 1841; and that on the 25th of November, 1841, a surveying expedition started from the town of New Plymouth, and marked out the boundary-line to the north, which included the Waitara and four miles beyond, under the authority of Governor Hobson.

I left the settlement of New Plymouth in August, 1843, having surveyed and apportioned, in fifty-acre sections, 10,700 acres on the north side of the river Waitara, and 22,300 acres on the south side of the river. I arrived in London in February, 1844. It is, now, worth while observing how the English Government ratifies and adopts the arrangements previously made. At this time the Land-Commissioner appointed by the home Government arrived in the colony, to investigate and to decide upon the land claims. Under the authority of Government, the Commissioner, Mr. Spain, examined into the purchases made by the New Zealand Company, into the claims of the natives, and into the purchase effected with the Waikatoos by Governor Hobson. And in June, 1844, the Commissioner, under the authority of Government, awarded to the New Zealand Company the square of land embracing the Waitara and the town of New Plymouth.

But now observe the absurd mistake from which so much mischief has resulted! The scenes are changed. New administrators arrive upon the spot. Governor Fitzroy makes his appearance. Interested advisers, with false views, crowd around the newly-arrived and inexperienced Governor, and they find the means of persuading him to reverse the decisions of Mr. Spain, and to set aside the politic and judicious arrangements which he had made. In two words, the new party induced the Governor to hand back the claims of the original native settlers to them, as if we were to begin *de novo*, and to set about a new purchase as if the perfect acquisition of the land had not been already effected.

The reversal of Mr. Commissioner Spain's award was a most ill-starred and clumsy proceeding. It grieves one to recall the evils which have resulted from it. Instead of the flourishing homesteads and the prospering farms which were everywhere rising, the lands have gone to waste; and the district is now ruined with contention, profaned with fire and steel, and polluted with blood. As the answer to the setting aside of Mr. Spain's award by Governor Fitzroy, has arisen the claim of the rebel king, of whom we should never have heard but for this untoward event. This rebel king would have otherwise never dared to lay claim to any Taranaki land, for fear of the Waikatoos; they had driven him from the country, they held it because they alone could keep it, and they sold the sovereignty of it to the Queen.

It was not until the wily savage knew that the Waikatoos had been paid for the Waitara and Taranaki land, and were therefore satisfied, nor until he discovered our weakness in the hesitation which induced the reversal of the Commissioner's arrangements, that he ventured to appear upon the scene and to talk of "mana."

I returned to New Plymouth in 1857, and was pained to witness the changes. I soon discovered the mischiefs which had followed the re-opening of the already settled land question. The natives had deteriorated. All was going backward. Difficulties and troubles beset the settlers. The natives were arrogant and hostile; and their inimical feelings were well known to Governor Grey, as well as the imminent danger to the colony, long before the flourish of the first tomahawk. I have travelled largely both in the old and the new worlds, and I have the fullest persuasion that neither Governor



Grey nor any other man, in authority or otherwise, could have long delayed the struggle, which was growing inevitable, unless the British rule was to have simply declined into a nominal rule, and unless the Maoris were to be permitted to become masters.

In March, 1859, Governor Gore Browne visited Taranaki, to make himself acquainted with the state of the settlement, and with the position of the natives. I was present when Teira offered the district of Waitara-land for sale, and I witnessed the defiant conduct of the rebel king, who interposed, and refused to sell. I watched the patience and the painstaking of the authorities of the Land Purchase Department to make all satisfactory on both sides, and to attain to peaceful and to equitable terms, and I can conscientiously bear witness that everything was done on that occasion to heal the discord, consistently with the firm maintenance of the Queen's authority.

The war by the natives is by no means a surprise. Long before the war broke out I was aware of what was threatening, and I knew that the Southern natives, in addition to the other hostile tribes, were determining to seize the settlers' lands. The Waitara dispute was a convenient blind, of which they well knew how to avail themselves. Hence the barbarous way in which they conducted themselves, and their aid to the rebel king.

The natives speedily become aware of what is talked, done, said, and proposed relative to New Zealand, in England. Every sermon preached, every missionary representation circulated, if it tends to apologize for the hostility of the rebels to the Queen's Government; every leader and every paragraph in the journals (of which I meet many, but conveying marvellously little real information); if these views purport to canvass the justice of our cause in the colony, and if they seem to take the side of the natives, they will only serve to encourage them. If the natives are led to believe that they will succeed by perseverance, and that we feel doubtful and uncertain of our own rights, and that we may slacken in the vigorous assertion of them, then it needs no prophet to declare that the war will intensify still more, and grow into a duration of which one may, literally, be said to desecry no limit.

I appeal to time to justify me in the correctness of all the foregoing views, which have been arrived at from an intimate acquaintance with all the circumstances of the land-question—which is the cause of the war—as they arose *ab initio*. New Zealand is remote enough from England; she is at the other extremity of the hemisphere, but this colony may be esteemed as only the farthest end of the bent bow of England's arc of colonial possessions—an end, too, which might assist in lending power, should, at time of political tension, the arrow of England's national assertion be needed to be let fly.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient servant,

FREDERICK CARRINGTON.

Auckland, New Zealand, June 12, 1861.

#### THE INCOME TAX—SCHEDULE D.

SIR,—In your number of last Saturday you have been pleased to notice a long letter on Schedule D of the income tax to which your kindness gave insertion in your number of September 21. The subject is of such paramount importance to the national revenue on one side, and each individual member of the community on the other, that the discussion of it must continue to possess great interest for the public, till some definite conclusion has been established. I stated the principal reasons which have convinced me that one uniform rate on every kind of income is the only system that is consistent with justice, political philosophy, and the spirit of the English law; if they fail to have equally persuasive power for your readers, I am quite ready to listen to the refutation; and I hope I have fair play enough in my nature to admit any errors of which I may be proved guilty.

The writer of the article of last week professes to be able to "show, by a few general propositions, the fallacy of the whole argument." His first, and, indeed, his sole argument, he himself sums up thus:—"In one sentence, the capitalists in existence when the income and property tax was imposed had not paid a tax upon the savings by which they had made themselves capitalists." I confess that the alarm I felt at the demolition which was in store for me quickly subsided when I found that no heavier shot than this general proposition was fired against my argument.

My critic's position, then, is this: that the persons taxed under the other schedules, or at any rate, such of them as are rated for what is called realized property, should pay ninepence in the pound, whilst those assessed under Schedule D should be charged, say, only sixpence in the pound; and the reason he assigns is, that the property inherited by those owners had not paid any tax previously to the enactment of the income tax.

It is obvious at once that this proposition treats the income tax as a tax on property. My argument is exclusively addressed to a tax on income; and I might content myself with the simple reply that my critic and I are talking of two different things. He may, as indeed he does, think it desirable that property, as distinct from income, should be taxed, but that is a new question, which does not touch my letter.

Secondly, his remark, at the best, applies solely to a state of transition. Each succeeding year diminishes its force. As time rolls on, and the income tax pursues its relentless career, it is plain that all the realized property in the country will become more and more property which will have paid income tax in the past; and thus, at the expiration of a hundred years, the exemption which my opponent claims will be available for those persons only, according to his own showing, whose property will have been possessed by them, or their predecessors from whom they inherited it, for more than one hundred years. He may quickly satisfy himself, if he pleases, that the number of such persons will be incredibly small. The amount of property in England, whether of land or other investments, which has descended by pure inheritance only, without purchase, for upwards of a century, is a perfect trifle compared with the wealth of the whole nation, and is quite unworthy of mention in a general argument on the income-tax. Difficulties connected with a state of transition are wholly distinct from the essential principles and nature of the tax; I occupied myself exclusively with the latter, and did not allude to the former. This "general proposition," therefore, even if sound, is no answer whatever to my argument.

But, thirdly, is it sound? My critic, I fear, will find the answer very dif-

ficult to deal with,—that the State has met and provided against his objection by imposing a heavy succession duty on all inherited property. It is a charge laid on the savings of the past; the very property whose escape the writer so feelingly deploras. If the landowner is pressed by the shopkeeper with the reproach that his capital had not paid in the past, and therefore ought to be charged more now, he has the triumphant reply ready, "Yes; but I paid a tax to the State for it, besides the tax on its annual produce; whilst you pay on the annual income only, and have escaped the burden which fell on me." What the shopkeeper is to say in rejoinder I am at a loss to conceive.

It must be observed, too, that in consequence of the tendency of society to diminish the numbers of those who inherit estates by long descent, the pressure on the landowner, and, as far as the writer's argument goes, the injustice becomes constantly stronger; for after no long lapse of time, all realized property, with small exceptions, will have paid income-tax in the past, and therefore, so far, the succession duty will not be needed to redress the wrong alleged by my critic.

And lastly, I would ask,—How does the author propose to work his scheme? Its very object is to remedy injustice; it professes to deal out fair and impartial treatment; its very merit, as against the uniform rate, is that it is just and even towards all parties. Is it not clear, upon the face of the principle, that it renders a different rate necessary for every variation in the age, the tax-paying age, of each property? A Duke of Bedford, whose estate can be traced back to Henry VIII., or a Duke of Norfolk, who may reach yet farther back, may be liable to the full ninepence, but what will the small landowner, the man of some £200 a year, whose land was not inherited but bought with hard money, just one year before the income tax was imposed—what will he say if charged the full ninepence, whilst the successful barrister, of the same age as himself, gets off with sixpence? Is this just? Is this that correction of the iniquities of Schedule D, which is to make the whole community bow down before its fairness? And then, if a distinction is to be allowed between the ancient inheritance of a Duke of Norfolk, and the few fields, which were almost twins to the income tax, and something much less than ninepence though a shade higher than sixpence be levied on the young-lived estate, will not the leaven of the principle ferment, and will not every owner of realized property insist that, in common justice, the circumstances of his own particular case shall be considered, and only a proportional rate be charged? And shall we not then fall into fractions, into halfpence, and farthings, to meet with nice discrimination the varying pedigrees of each "favoured" proprietor?

The law cannot take details into account; it can consider only classes and general rules. This is the stereotyped answer; but it breaks down invariably. The boundary lines never can be found; as fast as they are drawn, some unjustly used victim breaks through them at once; the principle of doing justice by giving relief to relative risks or peculiar pressure renders all classification impossible. That principle never fails to float down every classification against the rock of exceptions; for it starts with exception, and has exception for its essence; and then every individual's case is easily proved to be exceptional. The "general proposition" of my critic is shipwrecked upon it, like all the rest; he becomes hopelessly involved in the length of time, during which each single piece of realized property has been enjoyed without paying income-tax; and I do not envy him the task he would have in carrying out his own doctrine into practice.

I need not dwell on the emphasis with which he dwells on the various elements which qualify income; the discussion commences with the admission by all of the fact that men receiving the same amount of annual income are not, practically, equally rich; the point to be ascertained is, whether this fact calls for a variation in the rate of tax. I asserted that it did not, and gave my reasons; my opponent only repeats the admitted fact, and demands a discriminating rate; but gives no reasons except the general proposition I have discussed. There is nothing more, therefore, for me to answer; but in conclusion I beg to notice the startling, and somewhat invidious allusion to "the favoured few who can exist on the labour of others, without labouring for themselves." I should be glad to be informed how those who labour could ever exist at all without the savings of those who do not labour? I am at a loss to understand how the peasant could contrive to live whilst the corn is growing if he had no house to dwell in, no food to sustain him, no tools to work with, and no horses for the plough or the waggon; or how the artisan could keep life in him without wages, lodging, and a mill to work in till the manufactured bale is sold. If labour is useful, so is self-denial, and if one is meritorious so is the other. A little study of political economy would have taught the writer that the wealth which yields income is wholly employed in the maintenance of labour. Without such capital, almost all the population of England would perish. The self-denial which abstains from consuming favours quite as much as it is favoured.—I remain, Sir, yours, &c.

A CONSTANT READER.

#### DESECRATION OF ANTIQUITIES AT ROCHESTER, IN KENT.

SIR,—You are no doubt aware that this city of Rochester occupies the site of a Roman town named *Durobrivæ*, and from time to time many Roman remains have been found in it; but, alas! they have been destroyed, lost, or scattered abroad. Unfortunately, in spite of all that has been done in the country of late years by societies and individuals to impress upon people's minds the respect due to these monuments of the past, the authorities of Rochester seem to have no greater regard for them than of old. The lower part of a tower of the ancient city wall has recently been discovered in the course of some excavations for purposes of public utility, and has excited the interest of the local antiquaries; but it is not through their exertions that this relic of ancient Rochester is to be preserved. It is said that the municipal authorities have discovered that the building, as it stands, may be made use of in the formation of a cess-pool, and thus save part of the expense of making a new one! Utilitarian feelings were certainly never carried to a greater excess. It may be proper to state that this building was originally Roman work, repaired and altered in the middle ages. Surely the voice of the press might be raised with effect to prevent so extraordinary a case of desecration.—Yours truly,

DUROBRIVIENSIS.

October 1, 1861.

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## NECROLOGY.

## C. HANBURY-LEIGH, ESQ.

On Saturday, the 28th ult., at Plymouth House, Penarth, aged 85, Capel Hanbury-Leigh, Esq., of Pontypool-park, Lord-Lieutenant of Monmouthshire. His death was occasioned by the accidental administering of a lotion containing poison by his valet. The deceased gentleman, according to a writer in the *Morning Chronicle*, was the second son of the late John Hanbury, Esq., of Pontypool-park, some years M.P. for Monmouthshire, by Jane, his wife, daughter of Morgan Lewis, Esq., of St. Pierre, in the same county (which lady subsequently married, as her second husband, Thos. Stoughton, Esq., of Ballyhorgan, Ireland), and was born on the 6th of October, 1776. His father died whilst he was quite a child, and his elder brother, also dying unmarried, in 1796, at the age of twenty-one, he ultimately inherited his father's property, soon after entering on which he assumed, by Royal licence, the additional surname and arms of Leigh. His youngest, and only surviving brother, having married the only child and heir of Henry, eighth Viscount Tracy, assumed the additional name and arms of Tracy, and having supported the Liberal party in Parliament for many years, as M.P. for Tewkesbury, was raised to the peerage at her Majesty's coronation in 1838, as Lord Sudeley. Mr. Hanbury-Leigh, meantime, though he never entered Parliament, became, partly through his great wealth, and partly by his good sense, business habits, and genial disposition—one of the most influential of the squirearchy of South Wales—second only, if actually second, to the head of the house of Morgan of Tredegar. And to such an extent was his influence felt and acknowledged, though he had never entered St. Stephen's, that Earl Grey, as is well known, marked him down in his list as one of the gentlemen on whom he proposed to bestow a coronet when he wished to push the Reform Bill through the House of Lords; and it is understood that, if he had pleased, he might at any time have received a patent of creation as Lord Hanbury from the Administration of which Lord Melbourne was the head. But he was fond of a country life and country tastes, and cared little for the struggles of an active political career, and constantly refused the tempting bait. As a noble specimen of a "fine old English gentleman," in the best and truest sense of the word, Mr. Hanbury-Leigh will be long remembered and regretted throughout the southern counties of the Principality, not less on account of his private character than as having held the office of Lord-Lieutenant of Monmouthshire for a quarter of a century, since the year 1836, when he succeeded the late Duke of Beaufort. The deceased gentleman was twice married; first in April, 1797, to Mary Anne, only daughter of Nathaniel Myers, Esq., of Neath, county of Glamorgan, and widow of Sir R. H. Mackworth, Bart., but was left a widower, without issue, in 1846. In the following year, at the age of seventy-one, he married, as his second wife, Emma Elizabeth, fourth daughter of Thomas Bates Rous, Esq., of Courtyrall, county of Glamorgan, by whom, who survives him, he has left issue. He succeeded in his estates by his son, John Capel Hanbury Leigh, a youth who is now in the eighth or ninth year of his age, having been born in 1853. The Hanbury family, a branch of which was represented by the deceased gentleman, are an old Worcestershire stock, and were seated at Hanbury, near Bromsgrove, from a very early period. An ancestor of the deceased, who was Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas in Ireland, *tempore* Edward II., became the progenitor of the Hanburys of Pontypool, and also of another branch, settled at Kelnarsh, Northamptonshire, the head of whom was raised to the peerage in 1837, as Lord Bateman.

## SIR J. M. RIDDELL, BART.

On Saturday, the 28th ult., at Brook House, Leamington, aged 74, Sir James Milles Riddell, Bart., of Sunart, Argyllshire. The deceased baronet was the elder son of the late Thomas Milles Riddell, Esq. (eldest son of Sir James, the first baronet of this line), by Margaretta, daughter of Colonel Dugald Campbell, of Lochnell, co. Argyll (ninth in descent from Colin, third earl of Argyll), and was born at Shaw Park, co. Clackmannan, June 3rd, 1787. He succeeded to his grandfather's title and estates at the early age of ten years, in 1797, and was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, where he graduated B.A. in 1807. Sir James, who was a Deputy-Lieutenant for Argyllshire, married, in 1822, Mary, youngest daughter of the late Sir Richard Brooke, Bart., of Norton Priory, co. Chester, by whom he had issue two sons, and a daughter, married to the Rev. Henry Cunliffe, Vicar of Shiffnal, Salop, third son of the late General Sir Robert Henry Cunliffe, Bart., C.B., of Acton Park, co. Denbigh. He succeeded in the title and estates by his elder and only surviving son, Thomas Milles, now third baronet. He was born at Edinburgh in 1822 (twin with his sister Louisa), and married in 1851 Mary Anne, daughter of John Hodgson, Esq., of St. Petersburg. The Riddells are an ancient and knightly Norman family, and claim descent from Galfridus Ridell, Baron of Blaye, in Guienne, who accompanied William the Conqueror to England, and received from that monarch large territorial grants. His descendant, in the sixteenth generation, removed into Scotland in the fifteenth century. There is another baronetcy, of Nova Scotia, dated 1628, in possession of an elder branch of his family, and it is now held by Sir Walter Buchanan Riddell, Bart., of Riddell, co. Roxburgh.

## MR. W. FARREN.

On Tuesday, the 24th ult., in Brompton-square, aged 74, Mr. William Farren, the eminent comedian. His father was an actor of no very great note, but who, being favoured by circumstances, accumulated a comfortable fortune. William, his third son, was born in 1787, and, in 1806, made his first appearance on the stage at Plymouth, as Lovegold, in "The Miser;" he soon became a provincial favourite, more especially at Dublin, whence he came to London in 1818. He devoted himself to the personation of "old men," a class of portraiture in which he attained the highest success, and whether the character he undertook was that of a finished veteran *roué* of high life, a sturdy elderly merchant, a Croesus proud of his wealth, or an aged peasant, with the infirmities, obtuseness, and touchiness of his class, Mr. Farren was invariably artistic and effective. He was, in fact, unapproached in his special department during the later part of his career, and we may add has left no rival worthy to fill his place. Among his very finest parts were his Lord Ogleby and Sir Peter Teazle, in elegant comedy, and his Old Parr, and some similar illustrations of senility in inferior life. Unless

we mistake, his last original part was that of an elderly cynic in Mr. Shirley Brooks's play, "The Daughter of the Stars." Physical debility compelled Mr. Farren to retire from the boards in July, 1855, and thenceforth down to his decease he resided with his son, Mr. William Farren (himself a talented member of the Haymarket company), in Brompton-square. He will be better remembered by the general and exquisite polish of his acting than by what are called "points;" but play-goers of a day when art was comprehended, and even preferred to spectacle and "sensation," will recollect Lord Ogleby's sudden burst of natural good-feeling, and Sir Peter's answer to his friend's congratulation, "Yes, I have entered into the—happy—state, but we won't talk about that just now."

## ARTHUR W. W. SMITH, ESQ.

Died at Wilton-street, Belgrave-square, aged 36, Arthur W. W. Smith, Esq. We announce with sincere feelings of deep regret the death of this estimable gentleman, the brother of Albert Smith, and justly respected for his talents as a writer, and his qualities as a man. The two brothers, Albert and Arthur Smith, were strongly attached to each other, and little doubt can be entertained that the early demise of the accomplished Albert tended to shorten the life of Arthur. Only eighteen months passed between the deaths of the two brothers. Arthur was, like Albert, a very clever writer; and he possessed qualifications with which few authors are gifted. He was a first-rate man of business, and much of his brother's success may be attributed to his arrangements for giving effect to his entertainments, and in making them universally popular. Arthur Smith had no enemies, and his conduct was such as to win for him the respect of all who became acquainted with him.

## SIR W. WHITE.

On Tuesday, the 17th ult., aged 51, Sir William White, of Caragh Lodge, Killarney, co. Kerry, and 99, Gloucester-place, Portman-square, London. He was the eldest son of William Preston White, Esq., of St. Patrick's Hill, Cork, by a daughter of the Rev. Arthur Hyde, of Hyde Park, in the same county. He was born at Ross Hall, Killarney, in 1810, and filled the office of High Sheriff of the city of Cork in 1834-5, on which occasion he received the honour of Knighthood from the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. Sir William White, who for many years has been a respected member of the London Stock Exchange, married in 1848 the youngest daughter of the late Richard Johnson Lockett, Esq., of Macclesfield.

## L. CHRISTIE, ESQ.

On Monday, the 23rd ult., at Preston Deanery, co. Northampton, aged 72, Langham Christie, Esq. He was the eldest son of the late Major Daniel Beat Christie, of the Bombay Engineers, by Elizabeth, daughter and co-heiress of Purbeck Langham, Esq., and grand-daughter of Sir John Langham, Bart., of Cottesbrooke Park, Northamptonshire. He was born in London in the year 1789, and was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1813, and M.A. in 1817. He served the office of High Sheriff for the county of Northampton in the year 1852, and was in the Commission of the Peace and a Deputy Lieutenant for Northamptonshire. Mr. Christie, who was descended from an ancient family in the canton d'Argovie, in Switzerland, of the name of Christin, married, in 1829, Margaret Elizabeth, eldest daughter of the late William Gosling, Esq., of Hassobury Park, Essex, by whom he has left issue three daughters and one son, William, who succeeds to the estates, and who was born in 1830.

## L. C. OTWAY, ESQ., C.B.

On Thursday, the 26th ult., at Madrid, Loftus Charles Otway, Esq., C.B., H.B.M.'s Consul-General at Milan. He was the only son of the late General Sir Loftus Wm. Otway, C.B., Colonel of the 84th Foot, &c. (who died in 1854), by the only daughter and heir of Sir Charles Blicke, of Carroon Park, Surrey. He was born about the year 1810, and in November, 1830, he became *Attaché* at Stockholm. According to the *Foreign Office List*, his subsequent appointments were as follows:—To the Embassy at St. Petersburg, July 16, 1833; to the Mission at Madrid, August 26, 1834; was appointed Second Paid *Attaché* at Vienna, January 5, 1843, but did not proceed; Paid *Attaché* at Lisbon, June 3, 1843; at Madrid, July 14, 1845; Secretary of Legation at Madrid, May 9, 1850; was *Chargé d'Affaires* from May 31 to December 9, 1852, from May 30 to December 1, 1853, from June 2 to August 1, 1854, from June 24 till October 13, 1855, and from June 30, 1856, till October 30, 1856. Mr. Otway was nominated a Companion of the Bath September 21, 1854, for his services in Spain. Early in the year 1858 he was selected by the Secretary of State for the Foreign Department to discharge the duties of Minister Plenipotentiary to the Mexican Republic, during which mission he exerted all his powers to protect the interests of his countrymen in that distracted countrymen; and soon after his return home, was appointed to the onerous post of Consul-General at Milan. Mr. Otway was also a Deputy-Lieutenant for the county of Radnor.

## REV. T. F. FOORD-BOWES, D.D.

On Friday, the 27th ult., at Folkestone, aged 84, the Rev. Timothy Fysh Foord-Bowes, D.D., rector of Barton-in-the-Clay, &c. He was born in the year 1777, and was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1800, and M.A. in 1803, subsequently proceeding to the degrees of B.D. and D.D. He had held the crown living of Barton-in-the-Clay (value, according to the *Clerical Directory*, £520) since 1820; the rectory of Cowlam, Yorkshire (of which he was also patron), since 1802 (annual value, £300); and the rectory of Oake, Somerset, since 1803 (annual value, £200). He was also Chaplain to the Queen, and Deputy-Clerk of the Closet to his late Majesty William IV.

## C. E. LONG, ESQ.

On Wednesday, the 25th ult., at Dover, aged 65, Charles Edward Long, Esq., of 8, Chapel-street, Grosvenor-square. He was the eldest son of the late Charles Beckford Long, Esq., by Frances Monro, daughter and heir of Lucius Tucker, Esq., of Norfolk-street, Park-lane, London, and grand-



daughter of Frances, daughter and heir of Wm. Jenkyns, Esq., sometime Captain in the Royal Horse Guards. He was born in 1796, and was a first cousin of Henry Lawes Long, Esq., of Hampton Lodge, Surrey, who is married to Lady Catharine Walpole, sister of the late Earl of Orford. The Longs are of Wiltshire extraction, and various branches of the family have been seated in Wiltshire for many centuries.

#### REV. J. S. SCHOFIELD.

On Tuesday, the 24th ult., at Goulceby Vicarage, near Horncastle, Lincolnshire, aged 63, the Rev. John Spofforth Schofield. He was the eldest son of the late William Schofield, Esq., of Sand Hall, Howden, Yorkshire, and was born in 1798. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1820, and proceeded M.A. three years later. He held for some years the curacy of Goulceby, to the vicarage of which parish he was nominated, according to the *Clerical Directory*, in 1853, by the patron, J. M. Lister, Esq.

#### REV. R. T. PALMER.

On Thursday, the 19th ult., at Clifton, near Bristol, aged 34, the Rev. Richard Thomas Palmer. He was the fifth son of Sir John H. Palmer, Bart., of Carlton Park, near Rockingham, co. Northampton, by the Hon. Mary Grace, eldest daughter of the late Lord Sondes. He was born April 15, 1827, and was educated at University College, Oxford, where he graduated B.A. in 1849. He was formerly assistant curate of St. Nicholas, Great Yarmouth.

#### CAPTAIN LEITH.

On Monday, the 23rd ult., at St. Jean de Luz, Basses Pyrenees, Captain William Forbes Leith, R.N. He was the third son of the late Theodore Forbes Leith, Esq., of Whitehaugh, Aberdeenshire, and entered the navy, according to O'Byrne, in 1796, on board the *Prince George*, 98, Captain Wm. Bowen, bearing the flag of Rear-Admiral Wm. Parker, with whom he continued to serve, in the Channel, off Cadiz and Lisbon, and in the Mediterranean, as midshipman of the *Blenheim*, 98, and again of the *Prince George*, until September, 1799. During the next three years and a half we find him employed on the Home Station in the *Amethyst* frigate, Captains Cook, Glynn, and Campbell; and, on 7th May, 1804, after having for a few months acted as Lieutenant of the *Malta*, 80, and *Ganges*, 74, Captains Edw. Buller and Thos. Fras. Fremantle, formally promoted to that rank. His succeeding appointments were 19th June, 1804, to the *Nemesis*, 28, Captain Philip Somerville, lying at Plymouth; 16th April, 1805, to the *Druid*, 32, in which frigate, commanded by Captains Broke, Astley, Bennett, Mackay, Bolton, and Louis, he served for nearly six years on the Cork and Cadiz stations, and assisted at the capture of *Le Pandour*, national brig of 18 guns and 114 men; and 30th September, 1816, to the *Repulse*, 74, Captain Richard Hussey Moubay, attached to the force in the Mediterranean, whence he invalided in January, 1813. He attained the rank of Captain, 15th June, 1814, and had since been on half pay.

#### LADY JAMES HAY.

On Monday, the 30th ult., at Seaton House, Aberdeenshire, the wife of Lieutenant-General the Lord James Hay. Her ladyship was Elizabeth, only child and heir of the late James Forbes, Esq., of Seaton House, and married, in 1813, Lord James Hay (a younger brother of the present Marquis of Tweeddale), who became a lieutenant-general in the army, and colonel of the 86th Regiment of Foot in 1854, and is a Deputy-Lieutenant for Aberdeenshire. She has left issue two sons and two daughters, besides a daughter who died young.

#### LADY LAMBERT.

On Monday, the 30th ult., at Hastings, the wife of Vice-Admiral Sir George R. Lambert, K.C.B. Her ladyship was Katharine, daughter of the Rev. Thomas Cobb, and married, in 1830, Captain Lambert, R.N., who held the command as Commodore on the East and West Indian stations between 1847 and 1853, in which latter year he was nominated a K.C.B., and became a vice-admiral in 1859.

#### LADY WILLIAMS.

On Saturday, the 28th ult., at La Rocheville, France, aged 70, Lady Williams. Her ladyship was Harriet Katharine, only daughter of the late Mr. Davies Davenport, M.P., of Capesthorpe Hall, Cheshire, by the daughter of Ralph Sneyd, Esq., of Keele, Staffordshire. She married the late Hon. Sir John Williams, who was appointed one of the Judges of the Court of Queen's Bench in 1834, but was left a widow at his lamented death in 1846.

#### MRS. CLARKE.

On Sunday, the 8th ult., at Brighton, Mrs. Clarke, of Belfield, co. Westmeath, and 2, Spring Garden-terrace, London. She was Eliza, daughter of General Rochfort, of the Royal Artillery, who was a nephew of the second Earl of Belvedere, in the peerage of Ireland, a title which has long been extinct. She married George Clarke, Esq., of Hyde Hall, Cheshire, but was left a widow several years ago.

#### MRS. HACKETT.

On Saturday, the 21st ult., at the residence of her nephew, Colonel Wegg, Haddington-road, Dublin, Mrs. Hackett. She was Jane, daughter of Thomas Mitchell, Esq., of Fortal Castle, and married the late Michael Hackett, Esq., of Moor Park and Elm Grove, King's County.

#### MRS. BUCK.

On Saturday, the 28th ult., at Leckhampton, near Cheltenham, aged 73, Elizabeth, relict of the late Colonel Buck, formerly of the 8th or King's Own Regiment. She was the eldest daughter of the late Edwin Sandys Lechmere, Esq., of Hereford (who died in 1822), by his wife Elizabeth, daughter of the Rev. Mr. Jones, of Foy, in the same county. She was conse-

quently first cousin to the late Mr. Capel Lechmere, of Fownhope Court, Herefordshire. The Lechmeres are an old Worcestershire family, and one portion of the house is represented by the present Sir E. H. Lechmere, Bart., of the Rhydd.

### WILLS AND BEQUESTS.

**Captain Hugh Hislop Elliot**, of H.M.'s 1st Bombay Light Cavalry, died at sea on board the merchant ship *Seringapatam*, on the 9th of June last. This gallant officer having died intestate, letters of administration were taken out by his relict, Mrs. Louise Sidonie Elliot, of Gloucester-place, Hyde-park, and consequently granted by the London Court of Probate. The property, therefore, of which the Captain died possessed will have to be distributed according to the Statute of Distribution. Captain Elliot was a cavalry officer of the Indian Army, and it is a melancholy circumstance that, most probably when seeking health and repose in his native land, death should have taken him on his passage home.

**The Hon. Mrs. Jane Macdonald**, wife of the Hon. Archibald Macdonald, who pre-deceased her husband but a short period, had executed her will so far back as 1845, by virtue of a marriage settlement made in 1802, over which she possessed a power of disposition in a moiety of the sum of £17,000, which, together with other property, amounting altogether to £14,000, she bestowed upon her husband, the Hon. Archibald Macdonald, for life, and on his death to revert to their children, excepting the eldest son, in equal proportions; a sum of £500 is left, in addition, to the share of the eldest daughter. The executors nominated are James Evan Baillie, Esq., of London, and Alexander Sinclair, Esq., of Edinburgh, and the will was administered to in the London Court on the 21st ult.

**The Hon. Archibald Macdonald**, formerly of Connaught-place, Hyde-park, but late of Belgrave-terrace, Brighton, who died at the advanced age of 84, only survived his wife four months, and having died intestate letters of administration were taken out by his daughter, Miss Mary Bridget Macdonald, upon whom the duty will devolve to distribute the estate in accordance with the practice prescribed in cases of intestacy. For a brief notice of the Hon. A. Macdonald see our journal of the 15th of February, No. 33.

**Major Ludford Harvey Daniel**, of H.M.'s 38th Foot, who died at Kussowler in the East Indies, executed his will on the 9th of March, 1858, when serving before Lucknow, which was witnessed by J. Timbill, paymaster, and William Mills, sergeant, 38th regiment. There being no executor appointed in the will, the grant of administration was made by the Court of Probate in London on the 20th ult., to a legatee and cousin of the deceased, the testator's brother, W. G. Daniel, who is the residuary legatee, having first renounced. This is a will made under very peculiar circumstances. The gallant officer, Major Daniel, was actually on the field of battle at Lucknow, where we presume he was wounded, and it was during that time this testamentary document was fabricated, and probably during the tumultuous confusion of a sanguinary conflict; no executor was nominated, nor probably even thought of at that terrific juncture. The gallant officer, feeling his end to be near, directed his military commission to be sold, and the produce to be merged in his personal estate, all of which he leaves in legacies, of various amounts, to his two cousins and a personal friend, appointing his brother William George Daniel, Esq., "heir-at-law."

**Richard Frankum, Esq., F.S.A.**, of Burlington-gardens, surgeon, and of Wolverhampton, died in August last, having made his will on the 10th of May preceding, which was proved in London on the 27th ult., by John Bruce, Esq., of Upper Gloucester-street, and Mr. Charles Klaffenberger, of Regent-street, the executors and trustees. The personality was sworn under £12,000. This is the will of a surgeon of considerable eminence, and who obtained, by a successful professional career, a large fortune, consisting of real and personal property. In the distribution of his estate, the testator has been exceedingly minute, and in most of his directions the ultimate carrying out of them will entirely depend upon remote and contingent circumstances. For instance, the estate at Wolverhampton is left for life to three persons successively, namely, the two above-named executors, a niece, and then eventually to devolve to a grand-nephew of the testator. The residue of the estate, both real and personal, after the payment of legacies, charitable bequests, &c., is bequeathed in like manner as the freehold, first to Mr. Bruce for life, and then to the other parties in succession, with the same directions. There are left legacies of £50 each to the London Hospital and University College Hospital; to the Mendicity Society and to the poor of Wolverhampton, nineteen guineas; and legacies are left to each of his servants. To his godson, Frankum M. Merrett, his medical library, surgical instruments, &c., are bequeathed. Mr. Frankum appears to have been devotedly attached to the fine arts, as he has empowered his executors and trustees to select from his pictures a portion of them which he has directed to be presented to the University College, Gower-street, under certain conditions as to their exhibition, and should they be rejected are then to be presented to the National Gallery.

**Thomas Haydon, Esq.**, of Guildford, Surrey, banker, who died on the 22nd of August last, executed his will in 1856, and added thereto a codicil dated 20th March, 1860, which were proved in the London Court, on the 23rd ult., by his three sons, the Rev. William Haydon, M.A., of Mithurst, Surrey; Dodsworth Haydon, Esq., of Guildford, banker; and John Haydon, Esq., who are nominated executors and trustees; the personal property being sworn under £20,000. This gentleman has died possessed of real as well as personal property, which he has left entirely amongst his family, it is therefore solely a family will. Mr. Haydon has left to his relict a life-interest in the whole of his property, real and personal, which, the testator observes, is for the support of herself and children; giving her the disposition over the sum of £4,000. The furniture, carriages, and other effects, she takes absolutely; and upon the decease of Mrs. Haydon, the entire estate is directed to be divided, in certain portions, amongst all the testator's children.

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Monday and Wednesday, Mr. EDWIN BOOTH, who has been received with acclamation, will appear in the character of SIR GILES OVERREACH, in A NEW WAY TO PAY OLD DEBTS; and on Friday repeat his performance of SHYLOCK.—On Monday, after the Play, and for this night only, BOX AND COX; Mr. Buckstone and Mr. Compton.—Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday, Mr. Charles Mathews' popular Comedy, THE SOFT SEX; Mr. C. Mathews, Mrs. C. Mathews, &c.; with the new Farce, PAUL PRY MARRIED AND SETTLED; Mr. C. Mathews.—On Wednesday and Friday, after THE MERCHANT OF VENICE, FITZSMYTHE OF FITZSMYTHE HALL, and other entertainments.

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Anselmo de Arroyave, Esq. (Messrs. A. de Arroyave & Co.)  
Alexander Henry Campbell, Esq. (Messrs. Finlay, Campbell, & Co.)

Philip Charles Cavan, Esq. (Messrs. Cavan, Lubbock, & Co.)  
Edward Cohen, Esq. (Messrs. Drake, Kleinwort, & Cohen.)  
James du Buisson, Esq. (Messrs. Henckell, Du Buisson, & Co.)

Pascoe du Pré Grenfell, Esq. (Messrs. Pascoe, Grenfell, & Sons.)

Adolphus Klockmann, Esq. (Messrs. Klockmann & Feaser.)  
Junius Spencer Morgan, Esq. (Messrs. George Peabody & Co.)

John Mollett, Esq., Austinfriars' Passage.  
George Garden Nicol, Esq. (Deputy-Chairman of the Chartered Mercantile Bank of India, London, and China.)

Peter P. Ralli, Esq. (Messrs. Ralli Brothers.)  
John Henry William Schroeder, Esq. (Messrs. J. H. Schroeder & Co.)

Robert Smith, Esq. (Messrs. Robert Smith & Co.)  
Frederic Somes, Esq. (Messrs. Somes, Mullens, & Co.)  
George Young, Esq. (Messrs. Begbie, Young, & Co.)

### MANAGER.

George Henry Whyting, Esq.

### BANKERS.

Messrs. Glyn, Mills, & Co., Lombard-street.

### SOLICITORS.

Messrs. Bircham, Dalrymple, & Drake, 40, Parliament-street, Westminster.

### SECURITY.

Capital—TWO MILLIONS STERLING, fully subscribed for by a large and wealthy Proprietary.

TWO HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS paid up and invested.

Losses promptly and liberally settled.  
All risks rated upon their own merit.

Forms of proposal, and every information, will be furnished on application at the Temporary Offices, 31, Threadneedle-street, London, E.C.

## PHENIX FIRE ASSURANCE COMPANY,

Lombard-street and Charing-cross, London.

Established in 1782.

### TRUSTEES AND DIRECTORS.

Decimus Burton, Esq. Kirkman D. Hodgson, Esq., M.P.  
Travers Buxton, Esq. William James Lancaster, Esq.  
Octavius Edward Coope, Esq. John Dorrien Magens, Esq.  
William Cotton, Esq. John Timothy Oxley, Esq.  
John Davis, Esq. Benjamin Shaw, Esq.

George Arthur Fuller, Esq. Wm. James Thompson, Esq.  
Chas. E. Goodhart, Esq. Henry Heyman Toulmin, Esq.  
James Alexander Gordon, Esq. Matthew Whiting, Esq.  
Edward Hawkins, Jun., Esq.

### AUDITORS.

John Hodgson, Esq. Peter Martineau, Esq.  
Joseph Samuel Lecher, Esq.

SECRETARY.—George William Lovell.

ASSISTANT SECRETARY.—John J. Broomfield.

SOLICITORS.—Messrs. Dawes and Sons, Angel-court.

Insurances against Loss by Fire are effected by the PHENIX COMPANY upon every description of Property, in every part of the World, on the most favourable Terms.

Persons insuring with the PHENIX COMPANY are not liable to make good the Losses of others, as is the case in some Offices.

Insurances with this Company expiring at MICHAELMAS must be renewed within Fifteen days thereafter, or they will become Void.

Receipts are now ready at the principal Offices, Lombard-street and Charing Cross, and with the respective Agents throughout the United Kingdom.

## ROYAL INSURANCE COMPANY.

Head Offices: 29, Lombard-street, London; and

Royal Insurance-buildings, Liverpool.

Branch Offices: Manchester, Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Dublin, Glasgow, and Edinburgh.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPORT FOR THE YEAR 1860.

"The success of the Company, even in its earliest years, received the marked attention, and elicited the surprised comments of writers best acquainted with the history of Insurance Companies."

"Fire Premiums for 1860 equal the Total Fire Premiums for the Seven Years 1845 to 1851."

"Life Premiums for 1860 exceed the Entire Life Premiums for the Eight Years ending 1852."

"Purchase of Annuities in 1860 largely exceeds the similar receipts for the first Ten Years, 1845 to 1854."

"This progress, it is believed, is unsurpassed, considering that it applies to each of the three branches of the business."

### FIRE BRANCH.

"The Fire Branch has certainly shown no exhaustion during the year 1860 of that impetus which had previously brought it to a position of the first magnitude among the Insurance Companies of the United Kingdom. The Fire Premiums in 1850 had advanced to the sum of £228,314. 7s. 3d. In 1860, the amount of Fire Premiums has arrived at a sum of £262,977. 19s. 11d., showing an increase of £34,663. 12s. 8d., exceeding the large advance of the preceding year, so that in two years the Fire Revenue of the Company has been enhanced by the enormous sum of £66,829. 17s. 5d."

"The Parliamentary Report of Returns of Duty paid to Government for the year 1860 exhibits the augmentation of the business in a more prominent way, as it affords the means of comparison with other Companies. The Proprietors will be gratified to learn that the increase of Duty paid by the Royal in the last year is more than double that of any other Company, either London or Provincial, whilst only one of those Companies even approaches to 50 per cent. of the advance of this Company. Our increase actually equals 30 per cent. of the entire increase of the whole of the Metropolitan Offices combined, whilst of the Provincial Offices it forms upwards of 30 per cent. of the total advance of the other 28 offices established out of London."

### LIFE BRANCH.

"The Reports of the Company for several years have had invariably to announce a constant periodical expansion of Life Business, the new Policies of each succeeding year showing an advance over the one that had immediately preceded it. A similar result is shown in the year 1860, the Premiums on New Policies, after deducting Guarantees, being £15,079. 17s. 10d., which is an increase in that item of £1,993. 17s. 5d. above the amount received for the year 1859."

"But even this advance is small when compared with the sudden and remarkable momentum which has been given to this branch of the business in the present year (1861)."

"It was not until the commencement of the year that the public seemed to have become fully acquainted with the fact that the Royal Insurance Company had published, late in the last year, an account of the investigation into the assets and liabilities of its Life Department, under a novel form, and in as plain and intelligible a manner as the abstruseness of the subject admitted, together with the entire statements and valuations necessary for that purpose."

"It is conjectured, from the extensive notices of this Pamphlet and its accompanying Diagrams, which have appeared in the periodicals of the day, that it has largely attracted the attention of vast numbers of persons in all parts of the United Kingdom, as well as in other parts of the world. Indeed, a most satisfactory and conclusive evidence that such is the case is afforded by the fact that the sum assured on New Policies in the six months to the 3rd June of the present year, is actually 50 per cent. in excess of the Sum Assured in the corresponding months of the year 1860, although the latter amount in itself exceeded the Sum Assured in any like previous period of time."

"If this success be continued, the Royal Insurance Company would, with respect to the amount of its new business, be at once placed (at least with one or two exceptions) at the head of all the Insurance Companies doing business in this country, and the anticipations of the last Report, to the effect that the details of the Life Business then to be published would form an epoch of the Establishment, will have a speedy and very happy realization."

### SPECIAL ADVANTAGES OF THE LIFE BRANCH.

PROFITS.—Large Proportion returned every Five Years to Policies then in existence Two entire Years.

Expenses chiefly borne by the Fire Branch, in order to increase the Bonus to be returned.

### LIFE BONUSES DECLARED.

Two per Cent. per Annum on the Sum Assured; the greatest Bonus ever continuously declared by any Company.

### SECURITY FOR BOTH FIRE AND LIFE BRANCHES.

Capital Two Millions Sterling.

Accumulated Funds in hand exceed £300,000.

PERCY M. DOVE, Manager and Actuary.  
JOHN B. JOHNSTON, Secretary.

### WATERLOO LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.

THIS COMPANY OFFERS THE SECURITY of a Capital of £400,000 and the advantages of moderate rates. The last Bonus was in 1859, the next will be in 1864. Claims within the days of Grace paid by this Company.

### NO EXTRA PREMIUM FOR VOLUNTEERS.

This Company's Policies insure against ACCIDENT or DISEASE totally incapacitating the insured, for a small extra premium.

Sums of money may be deposited at interest, for fixed periods on upon terms of Special Arrangement.

PROSPECTUSES AND FORMS on application to the HEAD OFFICE, 355, Strand, London.

ACCIDENTS OF ALL KINDS, AND FROM ANY CAUSE, may be provided against by an Annual payment of £3 to the RAILWAY PASSENGERS ASSURANCE COMPANY, which secures £1,000 at death by accident, or £6 weekly for injury.

### NO EXTRA PREMIUM FOR VOLUNTEERS.

One person in every Twelve insured is injured yearly by Accident. £75,000 has been already paid as Compensation.

For further information apply to the Provincial Agents, the Railway Stations, or at the Head Office, 64, Cornhill, (late 3, Old Broad-street.)

Annual Income £40,000.

CAPITAL ONE MILLION.

WILLIAM J. VIAN, Secretary.

4, Cornhill, E.C., January, 1861.



## SOVEREIGN LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY, 48, St. James's-street, London, S.W.

TRUSTEES.  
The Right Hon. the Earl of Shrewsbury and Talbot.  
Sir Claude Scott, Bart.  
Henry Pownall, Esq.

DIRECTORS.  
Chairman—The Lord Arthur Lennox.  
Deputy Chairman—Sir James Carmichael, Bart.  
John Ashburner, Esq., M.D.  
T. M. B. Batard, Esq.  
Lieut.-Col. Bathurst.  
John Gardiner, Esq.  
J. W. Huddleston, Esq., Q.C.  
Charles Osborne, Esq.

BANKERS.  
Sir Claude Scott, Bart., & Co.  
Founded in 1845.

To ample security, this Office adds the advantages of moderate rates and liberal management.  
The Bonuses hitherto declared have been unusually large, and amount in some cases to a return of four-fifths of the premium paid.

No charges are made beyond the premium.  
Medical Fees are paid by the Office, in connection with Policies effected with the Company.

For those who desire to provide for themselves in old age, sums may be assured payable on attaining a given age, as 60, 65, or 60, or at death, if it occur previously.

ENDOWMENTS FOR CHILDREN are made payable on attaining the ages of 14, 18, or 21, so as to meet the demands which education or settlement in life may create. By the payment of a slightly increased rate, the premiums are returned in the event of previous death.

Every information will be readily afforded on application to the Secretary or Agents.

### EXTRACT FROM DIRECTORS' REPORT, MAY, 1861.

"The Directors are enabled, in rendering their Annual Account, to announce that the year 1860 exhibited a continuance of the same healthy advance on which they last year had to congratulate the Proprietors, and so far as can be foreseen, presents the elements of future prosperity.

"Proposals for the Assurance of £254,933 were made to the Office during the past year, of which amount £167,259 were assured, producing in New Premiums, £5,619. 0s. 8d. The Income of the Office on the 31st December last had reached £46,562. 9s., being an increase over 1859 of £9,700.

"The Accounts, having reference to the last three years, show that the Cash Assets have exceeded the liabilities in a gradually increasing ratio, thus:—

In 1859 the Excess was	£8,269	7	4
1859 " "	12,086	9	11
1860 " "	18,557	0	6

"It will be seen that the amount added to the Funds of the Company during the past year shows a surplus of a very satisfactory character, notwithstanding the payment of £14,184. 14s. 5d. for claims consequent on the Death of Members.

"Since the Directors last had the pleasure of meeting the Proprietors, the Royal Assent has been given to a Special Act of Parliament, conferring additional powers on the Company.

"As the close of the present year will bring us to the period prescribed for the Valuation of the Business, with a view to the declaration of a Bonus, the Directors very earnestly invite the co-operation of the Proprietors, and all others connected with, or interested in the Office, to assist their efforts in making the present the most successful year of the Company's existence, in order that, individually and collectively, all interests may be advanced."

HENRY D. DAVENPORT, Secretary.

## UNITY FIRE INSURANCE ASSOCIATION

Unity-buildings, 8, Cannon-street, City.  
Income from fire premiums in 1860..... £70,656 16 0  
Every description of risks insured at tariff rates.  
CORNELIUS WALFORD, Manager.

## UNITY GENERAL LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATION, Unity-buildings, 8, Cannon-street, City.

Income from life premiums in 1860..... £24,309 8 9  
Loans granted. Good bonuses. Moderate premiums.  
CORNELIUS WALFORD, Manager.

ESTABLISHED 1838.

## ALBERT MEDICAL AND FAMILY ENDOWMENT LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.

Principal Offices—  
7, Waterloo-place, and 42, New Bridge-street, London.  
Branch Offices—At Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Agra, and Hong-Kong, with agencies throughout the United Kingdom.  
POSITION, INCOME, AND PROGRESS OF THE COMPANY.

The accumulated assets exceed ..... £650,000  
The subscribed capital ..... 500,000  
The annual income from life premiums exceeds ..... 250,000  
The policy claims and bonuses paid to claimants about 1,000,000 per annum.

The Company transacts the following description of business:—Life Assurance on Healthy and Diseased Lives, Annuities and Endowments of all kinds, India Risk Assurances, and Guarantee business; and confers upon Insurers great facilities and advantages, coupled with perfect security.

Special and peculiar features have been adopted, in order to render the Company's Policies additionally valuable as securities, and to offer to the insured means whereby their Policies may be saved from forfeiture.

Prospectuses, forms of proposal for Assurances, and every information, may be obtained on application to any of the Society's Agents; or to the Secretary, at 7, Waterloo-place, London, S.W., to whom applications for agencies in places not efficiently represented may be addressed.

C. DOUGLAS SINGER, Secretary.

## MORTLOCK'S CHINA WAREHOUSE, 250, OXFORD STREET.

SELLING OFF.

In consequence of the Marquis of Westminster's refusal to renew the Lease of the above premises (in connection with Park-street), JOHN MORTLOCK is anxious to decrease his RICH STOCK, and is prepared to make a great allowance for cash.

250, OXFORD-STREET, and 59, PARK-STREET, near Hyde-park.

CRINOLINE.—Ladies will find THOMSON'S PATENT CROWN SKELETON SKIRTS, PERFECTION! and to prevent mistake or imposition, should see that they bear the Trade Mark (a Crown), and the name THOMSON.

## LOCK-STITCH SEWING MACHINES,

MANUFACTURED BY THE

## WHEELER AND WILSON

MANUFACTURING COMPANY,

WITH RECENT IMPROVEMENTS.

Crystal Cloth Presser, new style Hemmer, Binder, Corder, &c.

OFFICES AND SALE ROOMS,

130, REGENT-STREET, W., late 462, Oxford-street, London.

INSTRUCTIONS GRATIS TO EVERY PURCHASER.

THE LOCK-STITCH SEWING MACHINE will Gather, Hem, Fell, Bind, or Stitch with great rapidity, answers well for ALL descriptions of work, is simple, compact, and elegant in design, the work will not ravel, and is the same on both sides, the speed is from 1,000 to 2,000 stitches per minute; a child twelve years old can work it, and the Machine is suitable alike for the Family or the Manufacturer.

Illustrated Prospectus, with Testimonials, Gratis and Post free.

## GEOLOGY and MINERALOGY.—

ELEMENTARY COLLECTION, to facilitate the study of this interesting Science, can be had, from Two Guineas to One Hundred, also Single Specimens, of J. TENNANT, 140, Strand, London, W.C. Mr. Tennant gives Practical Instruction in Mineralogy and Geology.

## FENDERS, STOVES, FIRE-IRONS, and

CHIMNEY-PIECES.—Buyers of the above are requested, before finally deciding, to visit WILLIAM S. BURTON'S SHOW-ROOMS. They contain such an assortment of Fenders, Stoves, Ranges, Chimney-pieces, Fire-irons, and General Ironmongery as cannot be approached elsewhere, either for variety, novelty, beauty of design, or exquisiteness of workmanship. Bright stoves, with ornate ornaments and two sets of bars, 3/15s. to 33/10s.; Bronzed Fenders, with standards, 7s. to 5/12s.; Steel Fenders, 2/15s. to 11/1; ditto, with rich ornate ornaments, from 2/15s. to 18/1; Chimney-pieces, from 1/18s. to 100/1; Fire-irons, from 2s. 3d. the set to 4/18s. The BURTON and all other PATENT STOVES, with radiating hearth plates.

## BEDSTEADS, BATHS, and LAMPS.—

WILLIAM S. BURTON has SIX LARGE SHOW-ROOMS devoted exclusively to the SEPARATE DISPLAY of Lamps, Baths, and Metallic Bedsteads. The stock of each is at once the largest, newest, and most varied ever submitted to the public, and marked at prices proportionate with those that have tended to make his establishment the most distinguished in this country.

Bedsteads, from ..... 12s. 6d. to £20 0s. each.  
Shower Baths, from ..... 8s. 6d. to £6 0s. each.  
Lamps (Moderate), from ..... 6s. 0d. to £8 10s. each.  
(All other kinds at the same rate.)  
Pule Colza Oil ..... 4s. per gallon.

## CUTLERY WARRANTED.—The most varied

assortment of TABLE CUTLERY in the world, all warranted, is on sale at WILLIAM S. BURTON'S, at prices that are remunerative only because of the largeness of the sales. 34-inch ivory-handled table knives, with high shoulders, 12s. 6d. per dozen; dessert to match, 10s.; if to balance, 6d. per dozen extra; carvers, 4s. 3d. per pair; larger sizes, from 20s. to 27s. 6d. per dozen; extra fine ivory, 33s.; if with silver ferrules, 40s. to 60s.; white bone table knives, 6s. per dozen; dessert, 5s.; carvers, 2s. 3d. per pair; black horn table knives, 7s. 4d. per dozen; dessert, 6s.; carvers, 2s. 6d.; black wood-handled table knives and forks, 6s. per dozen; table steels, from 1s. each. The largest stock in existence of plated dessert knives and forks, in cases and otherwise, and of the new plated fish carver.

## WILLIAM S. BURTON'S GENERAL

FURNISHING IRONMONGERY CATALOGUE may be had gratis, and free by post. It contains upwards of 300 Illustrations of his illimitable Stock of Sterling Silver and Electro-Plate, Nickel Silver and Britannia Metal Goods, Dish Covers, Hot Water Dishes, Stoves, Fenders, Marble Chimney-pieces, Kitchen Ranges, Lamps, Gasaliers, Tea Trays, Urns, and Kettles, Clocks, Table Cutlery, Baths, Toilet Ware, Turnery, Iron and Brass Bedsteads, Bedding, Bedroom and Cabinet Furniture, &c., with Lists of Prices and Plans of the Twenty large Show Rooms, at 39, Oxford-street, W.; 1, 1A, 2, 3, and 4, Newman-street; 4, 5, and 6, Perry's-place; and 1, Newman-mews, London.

## FURNISH YOUR HOUSE

WITH THE BEST ARTICLES AT

## DEANE'S

IRONMONGERY AND FURNISHING WAREHOUSES.

A Price Furnishing List sent Post Free.

DEANE & CO., LONDON BRIDGE.

ESTABLISHED A.D. 1700.

### DEANE'S—CELEBRATED TABLE CUTLERY.

	Table	Dessert	Knives.	Knives.	Carvers.
Finest Ivory Handles.....	33s.	29s.			11s.
Medium " " " " " "	23s.	18s.			7s. 6d.
Good " " " " " "	16s.	12s.			5s. 6d.

### DEANE'S—Electro-Plated Spoons and Forks—

	Table.	Dessert.	Tea.
Spoons—best plating .....	40s.	30s.	18s.
Forks " " " " " "	38s.	29s.	—
Spoons—2nd quality .....	33s.	24s.	14s. 6d.
Forks " " " " " "	31s.	23s.	—

### DEANE'S—Electro-Plated Tea and Coffee Sets, Liqueur

Stands, Cruets, Cake Baskets, &c.

### DEANE'S—Dish Covers and Britannia Metal Goods. Prices

of Tin Dish Covers in sets of six and seven, 18s., 30s., 40s., 63s., 78s.

### DEANE'S—Papier Maché Tea Trays in sets, from 21s.; new

and elegant patterns constantly introduced.

### DEANE'S—Bronze, Copper, and Brass Goods.

DEANE'S—Bronzed Tea Urns, 30s., 63s., 84s.

DEANE'S—Moderator Lamps, from 7s. to £6. 6s.

DEANE'S—Drawing-room Stoves, Ranges, &c.

DEANE'S—Fenders and Fire-irons.

DEANE'S—Iron Bedsteads with Bedding. Priced Pamphlet with Drawings, post-free.

DEANE'S—Domestic Baths. See Illustrated Priced Pamphlet.

DEANE'S—Tin, Japan, and Iron Goods.

DEANE'S—Cornices and Cornice Poles.

DEANE'S—Horticultural Tools.

DEANE'S—Chandeliers and Gas Fittings.

## CHOICE PORT OF 1858 VINTAGE—THE COMET YEAR.

HEDGES & BUTLER have imported a large quantity of this valuable Wine, respecting which it is the general opinion that it will equal the celebrated comet year of 1811. It is increasing in value, and the time must soon arrive when Port of this distinguished vintage will be at double its present price. Messrs. Hedges & Butler are now offering it at 36s., 42s., and 48s. per dozen.

Pure sound Claret, with considerable flavour.

Superior Claret ..... 36s. 42s. 48s. 60s. 72s.

Good Dinner Sherry ..... 21s. 30s. "

Superior Pale, Golden, or Brown

Sherry ..... 36s. 42s. 48s. "

Port, from first-class Shippers, 36s. 42s. 48s. 60s. "

Hook and Moselle ... 30s. 36s. 48s. 60s. to 120s. "

Sparkling ditto ..... 60s. 66s. 78s. "

Sparkling Champagne ... 42s. 48s. 60s. 66s. 78s. "

Fine old Sack, rare White Port, Imperial Tokay, Malmsey, Frontignac, Constantia, Vermuth, and other rare Wines.

Fine Old Pale Cognac Brandy, 60s. and 72s. per dozen.

On receipt of a Post-office Order or reference, any quantity, with a priced List of all other Wines, will be forwarded immediately by

## HEDGES & BUTLER,

London, 155, Regent-street, W.,

Brighton, 30, King's-road,

(Originally established A.D. 1687.)

ADOPTED BY THE GOVERNMENTS OF GREAT BRITAIN, SPAIN, DENMARK, BRAZIL, RUSSIA, &c.

EASTON'S PATENT BOILER FLUID, for the Removal and Prevention of INCORUSTATION in STEAM BOILERS, Land, Marine, Locomotive, and Stationary. Testimonials and particulars forwarded on application to P. S. EASTON and G. SPRINGFIELD, Patentees and Sole Manufacturers, 37, 38, and 39, Wapping Wall, E., London; or of their Agents in the Principal Manufacturing and Seaport Towns of Great Britain and Ireland.

### AGENTS IN GREAT BRITAIN:—

Aberdeen—Mr. James F. Wood.	Huddersfield—Mr. H. Green.
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Belfast—Mr. W. T. Matier, C.E.	Leeds—Mr. J. P. C. Westwood.
Birmingham—Mr. Adam Dixon.	Leicester—Mr. Benj. Pochin.
Chester—Mr. W. A. Rowland.	Liverpool—Mr. J. McInnes.
Devonport—Mr. Corn. Boulds.	Manchester—Messrs. Morris and Sutton.
Dublin—Mr. W. Pitt.	Newcastle-on-Tyne—Mr. T. S. Cathall.
Dundee—Mr. R. J. Niven.	Nottingham—Mr. G. D. Hughes.
Frome—Mr. W. B. Harvey.	Oldbury—Mr. C. Tonge.
Forest of Dean—Mr. T. Nicholson, Lydney.	Southampton—Mr. Jos. Clark.
Glasgow—Mr. W. Mutrie.	Southsea—Mr. T. Cheesman.
Grantham—Messrs. Hornsby and Son.	Wakefield—Mr. T. Whitaker.
Hartlepool—Mr. W. Talbot Cheesman.	

### FOREIGN:—

Brazil—Messrs. Miers, Bros., and Maylor, Rio Janeiro.	Holland—Mr. Joseph Comlander, the Hague.
Belgium—Messrs. Breuls, Bros., Antwerp.	South Russia—Mr. William Baxter, Nicolaef.
Demerara—Mr. W. Vaughan, Georgetown.	South Australia—Mr. W. Lister, Adelaide.

TOURISTS and TRAVELLERS, and others exposed to the scorching rays of the sun, and heated particles of dust, will find ROWLANDS' KALYDOR a most refreshing preparation for the complexion, dispelling the cloud of languor and relaxation, allaying all heat and irritability, and immediately affording the pleasing sensation attending restored elasticity and healthful state of the skin. It eradicates eruptions, freckles, tan, and discolourations, and produces a healthy purity and delicacy of complexion.

Price 4s. 6d. and 8s. 6d. per bottle. Sold at 20, Hatfield-garden, and by Chemists and Perfumers.

\* \* ASK FOR "ROWLANDS' KALYDOR."

### TO PROFESSIONAL GENTLEMEN.

PEARS'S TRANSPARENT SHAVING-STICK produces, with hot or cold water, an instantaneous, unctuous, and consistent lather, which softens the beard, and thereby renders the process of shaving more rapid, easy, and cleanly, than the old mode of using the brush and the dish.

PEARS'S TRANSPARENT SOAP surpasses all others for toilet purposes, imparting a most agreeable odour and softness to the skin. Prices, in tablets, 1s. each and upwards; made also in round cakes suitable for the shaving-dish, from 1s. each. To avoid counterfeits, observe that the genuine Transparent Soap can be procured at the Inventor's Manufactory, 81, Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury; or of J. & E. ATKINSON, 24, Old Bond-street; SMYTH & NEPIEW, 117, New Bond-street; W. PRITCHARD, 65, Charing-cross; W. WINTER, 205, Oxford-street; J. SANGER, 150, Oxford-street, London; and of all respectable Perfumers in town and country; or upon sixteen postage stamps being sent to Messrs. A. & F. PEAR'S, one Shaving Stick will be forwarded free for trial.

## THE BEST REMEDY FOR DIARRHOEA.

Cholera, Spasms, Nervous Complaints, &c., JEREMIE'S celebrated SEDATIVE and ANTISPASMODIC. From St. Chas. D'Oyley, Bart.—"It has saved my life more than once." Apothecary-General Jackson—"Its specific and characteristic power may to a certainty be relied upon." Colonel Tierney—"If the advantages of Jeremie's Sedative over other preparations of the kind could be more generally known, many a sufferer from pain would value it as highly as I do." Prepared only by SAVORY & MOORE, 143, New Bond-street, 25, Chapel-street, Belgrave, and 220, Regent-street, London. Sold in the "novel and ingenious bottles which regulate and check the dose" (Lancet), adopted by Savory & Moore, and approved by the medical profession.

## DU BARRY'S HEALTH-RESTORING

REVALENTA ARABICA FOOD, we find the safest remedy for habitual constipation, indigestion (dyspepsia), coughs, colds, asthma, bronchitis, consumption, diarrhoea, nervousness, biliousness, torpidity of the liver, acidity, flatulency, distension, hemorrhoid, debility, noises in the head or ears.—Andrew Ure, M.D., F.R.S.; Dr. Harvey, Dr. Shortland, Dr. Campbell, Dr. Wurzer.—1 lb. 2s. 9d.; 2 lb. 4s. 6d.; 4 lb. 11s.; 12 lb. 22s.; 24 lb. free of carriage, 40s.—BARRY & MASON, 77, Regent-street, London; also, FORTNUM & MASON, and all Grocers and Chemists.

Has now successfully mixed co-recently departed  
115

ME MOURNED description Prices are

F Is now (st forwarding most reas

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M Mr. C imitations production this decep establishm

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TO TO person 407, Strand,

COUG ASTH MATISM, & BROWNE'S ordinary effic have been i Chlorodyne e stamp, with t engraved the accompany en Sole Manuf street, Blooms Price in bot

DINNE has been tioned by the the public, a heartburn, he apert for d and children. forms an agree qualities are m climates, the n has been four utmost attenti CO., 172, New able Chemists

THE BE NORT are confident remedy for I diseases to whi grateful and "Natural Stre NORTON'S P are mild in th and thousand benefits to be Sold in Bott town in the k Caution.—B be persuaded



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Dr. Miller said justly that this subject had attracted as large a share of popular attention as any that could be mentioned. Like the telescope, it revealed to us intelligence of distant worlds; for not only did it tell us of changes in the glorious sun, but it revealed to us something of those distant solar orbs that stud, as twinkling stars, our firmament. Not only, like the telescope, did it reveal to us wonders from afar, but, like the microscope, too, it dealt with quantities so minute as to defy every other method of detection. He thought he should best discharge the duty which had devolved on him by endeavouring to give, in a brief manner, the successive steps by which this branch of investigation had been raised to such prominence. Like other great discoveries, it had not been the work of a single individual. It was a work, he was proud to say, in which our own countrymen had taken prominent parts; and there were many members of the British Association then present who had laid the foundations of our present knowledge on this subject. Nothing was known of the constitution of the solar spectrum before Newton, who in 1701 produced, in his memorable work on Optics, the results of investigations of many previous years.

Newton, however, had not the same certain means of showing his experiments as we now possessed in the electric light, the brilliant coloured spectrum of which was here thrown on a white screen. This spectrum it was seen was composed of bands of red, orange, yellow, green, blue, and violet colours, merging insensibly one into the other; but the solar spectrum, which, as far as colours were concerned, exactly resembled it, exhibited numbers of vertical dark bands, first discovered by Wollaston in 1801, but called after the German philosopher who subsequently carefully mapped them, and published his drawings of them,—Fraunhofer's lines. Wollaston, passing the sun's light through a narrow slit, found that it was not a continuous spectrum which was given, but that it was interrupted by a series of black bands at right angles to the length of the spectrum; but he did not pursue the investigation further, and it was twelve years after that Fraunhofer examined with a telescope the spectrum of a ray of light so passed, and carefully noted their position, which was found to be independent of the nature of the material used in constructing the prism. Dr. Miller here, anticipating the course of discoveries by thirty years, exhibited a photograph lately taken by himself of the solar spectrum with its dark bands and lines, and explained the cause of their darkness. (See THE LONDON REVIEW, No. 48.) Fraunhofer not only interested himself about the spectrum of the sun, but he observed also the spectra of the fixed stars, and detected in them lines not always in the same or coincident positions with those of the solar bands.

FIG. 1.—Solar Spectrum, from Dr. Miller's Photograph.\*



Dr. Miller then treated on other lights giving bright lines, such as those from incandescent metals, and pointed out the existence of four distinct sets of phenomena, namely, lines which might be called,—1st, cosmical, such as those of the solar light and of the fixed stars; 2nd, lines produced by absorption, for the discovery of which we are indebted to Sir David Brewster; 3rd, the bright lines produced by coloured flames; and 4th, there were the lines produced by the electric spark taken between various conductors, the knowledge of which was given us by Professor Wheatstone. Wollaston and Fraunhofer had not gone further than to notice that the electric spark produced an interrupted spectrum; but Wheatstone was the first to detect in it the existence of bright lines, and to show their dependence upon the nature of the conductors employed.

The annexed table, copied from one exhibited by the lecturer, represents the chronological order of the different steps made by successive observers in this field of inquiry:—

\* Our illustration gives only the principal lines of the photograph; there are many others too faint to be properly rendered on wood without confusion, especially between G and H. The same throughout the series of illustrations, in which also the red end, or least refrangible end of the spectrum, is that on the left hand of the diagram as printed. The photographs which were taken by Dr. Miller were of course negatives, but positive copies are given in our figures, the black lines corresponding to the inactive spaces of the spectra; it should be remarked that these lines are almost all of them in the ultra-violet portion of the spectrum, and consequently invisible to the eye under ordinary circumstances. In the solar spectrum, and the parts in some cases annexed to other spectra for comparison, the dark bands and guide-lines given are represented by black lines corresponding to the dark bands.

### CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF PROGRESSIVE DISCOVERIES.

Newton, 1701. Wollaston, 1802. Fraunhofer, 1815.			
Cosmical lines.	Coloured flames.	Absorption bands.	Electric light.
Brewster, 1832. E. Becquerel, 1842. Stokes, 1852. Brewster and Gladstone, } 1860.	Brewster, 1822. Herschel, 1822. Talbot, 1826, 1833, 1834. W. A. Miller, 1845. Swan, 1857.	Brewster, 1832. W. H. Miller and Daniell, } 1832. W. A. Miller, 1845. Foucault, 1849.	Wheatstone, 1835. Masson, 1851-55. Angstrom, 1833. Alter, 1854-55. Secchi, 1855. Plücker, 1858-59. V. Willigen, 1859.
Kirchhoff, 1859. Kirchhoff and Bunsen, 1860.			

1. Of the cosmical lines no experimental illustration for the lecture-room had been attempted before the photograph of the solar spectrum he had exhibited.

2. Of the absorption lines, Brewster was the first to suggest a cause. He observed that when the sun passed through the highest part of the heavens certain lines of the spectrum were not to be seen, but when setting or rising, its light traversed nearly horizontally a thickness of 200 miles of the earth's atmosphere at its greatest density, certain bands were developed in the spectrum, and this was due to the absorption of particular rays of light by the atmosphere. Then came Becquerel's discovery in 1842, when he ascertained that, corresponding with Fraunhofer's dark lines, were a series of inactive spaces, both in the chemical and in the phosphorogenic spectrum, extending in the chemical spectrum far beyond the more refrangible of the violet rays.

Stokes, in 1852, succeeded in rendering these lines apparent to the eye in the invisible portion of the spectrum, by his discovery that the fluorescent power of the spectrum was also interrupted by inactive spaces, the position of which corresponded exactly with the lines observed by Fraunhofer and by Becquerel. Another step was made by Brewster in 1833, whose experiments on the red vapours of nitrous acid showed that they had the remarkable property of absorbing certain parts of the sun's rays. This gas is of a brownish red colour, and if viewed by transparency no interruption is perceptible, but, examined after the ray of light had been passed through a prism, a series of dark bands were rendered visible.

Peroxide of chlorine, the vapours of iodine of bromine, and as the lecturer had himself ascertained and published in 1845, those of perchloride of manganese and several other coloured gases, produced characteristic absorptive bands in the spectrum. The following figures are taken from photographs of the absorption

FIG. 2.—Peroxide of Nitrogen Spectrum.

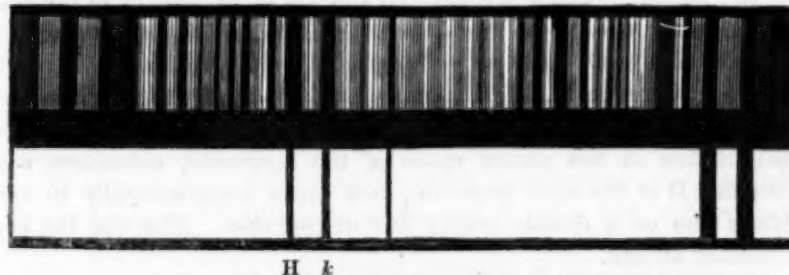
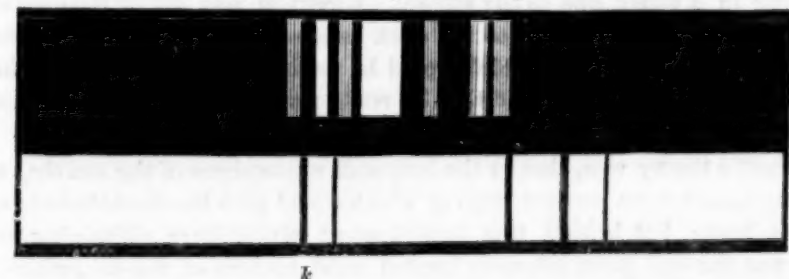


FIG. 3.—Peroxide of Chlorine Spectrum.



bands produced by nitrous acid and by peroxide of chlorine, each compared with certain of the lines of a solar spectrum received through a portion of the same opening.

Foucault's observation, in 1849, that the sun's rays when passed through the electric light gave black bands where the electric light showed bright ones in Kirchhoff's hands led to that grand discovery—the special subject of the lecture.

3. Thirdly came the spectra of coloured flames. Sir David Brewster, in 1822, found that light of one colour might be produced by burning dilute spirits of wine.

The same year Sir John Herschel made a series of observations on lights coloured by certain salts in combustion in their flames; but to Fox Talbot is due the credit of having turned these suggestions to account as a means of chemical analysis. The flames coloured by lithium and strontium, for example, were both equally of a red colour, so nearly alike in shade that to the naked eye there was nothing to distinguish them; but through the prism a striking difference was apparent.

Dr. Miller, in showing the spectra of these two alkaline metals by the electric light, observed that the beautiful blue line seen in the lithium spectrum, and which had been first remarked at Dr. Tyndall's lecture at the Royal Institution,





and then by some persons present thought to be due to some impurity in the salt employed, was really due to lithium, although the remarkably beautiful blue line was only brought out by intense heat, and was not visible by combustion at ordinary temperatures.

Mr. Fox Talbot also showed that the characteristic lines were due to the metal of the salt, and not to the nature of the acid which it contained. He found that the characteristic spectra of potash and of soda were equally obtained, whether the carbonate, sulphate, nitrate, or chloride of the alkali, were employed.

These investigations had been followed up by the lecturer (Miller), and the spectra of various metals, including those of the alkaline earths, mapped out in detail, and communicated to the British Association in 1845.

Another point of importance was ascertained by Mr. Swan, who was the first to estimate the delicacy of these reactions. The  $\frac{1}{100,000}$ th part of a grain of a salt of soda being detectable in the spectrum of the coloured flame, gives some idea of the extreme sensitiveness of this mode of analysis. Swan also adopted the collimator principle now used for observing the spectra, though Masson had used it before him.

4. The spectra of the electric light had the first impulse given to their investigation by Wheatstone. In 1835 he showed at Dublin a map of various spectra from sparks taken between points of different metals. Each metal exhibited a spectrum crossed by characteristic bands, whether magnetic, voltaic, or common machine electricity was used. He further showed these phenomena were not due to the burning of the metals, by passing the sparks through a vessel exhausted of air, and through one filled with carbonic acid.

The investigations of Wheatstone, who was at that time engaged personally with the electric telegraph, excited so much interest as to induce the Academy of Sciences at Haarlem to offer a prize for further investigations; the treatise of Masson, who, between 1851 and 1855, had contributed some valuable papers on the subject, being the one approved.

The spectra figured by Masson were much more complex than those originally mapped by Wheatstone for the same metals; and it was subsequently shown by Dr. Alter, an American observer, and still more clearly proved by Angstrom and Van Willigen, that the results of Masson were obtained by the superposition of two spectra, one due to the metal, the other due to the ignition of the gaseous medium itself, owing to the very intense sources of electricity which he employed.

In illustration of this, Dr. Miller exhibited the spectrum of silver, obtained by igniting the metal by the voltaic current, and proceeded then to introduce the subject of spectra from gases, by passing the spark through a tube exhausted of all but an imponderable quantity in a highly rarified state. Each gas had its own spectrum, the lines of which had been carefully investigated by Plücker. In this way the electric spark was passed through a hydrogen vacuum and through a nitrogen vacuum, the one giving a fine red light in the tube, the other a violet. Van Willigen continued the experiments on the spectra of gases, and in the course of his inquiries ascertained the curious fact that, if the wires between which the sparks passed were moistened with the salts of any metal, the sparks transmitted gave the characteristic spectra of the salt and not that of the metal of which the wires were composed. Now, all these facts before us nobody had explained until Kirchhoff took up the subject, and simultaneously with him Mr. Balfour Stewart investigated the law of exchanges in radiant heat, both independently coming to the conclusion that when any substance was heated, rays of a certain degree of refrangibility were given out by it, whilst the same substance, when cold, had the power of absorbing the rays of this identical refrangibility. Thus sodium, whose characteristic lines are the simplest, being a double bright line in the yellow space of the spectrum, coincident with the Fraunhofer line D in the solar spectrum, was made experimentally to exhibit a double black line or a double bright line at pleasure. This was the key note which Kirchhoff struck.

The light thus absorbed is not lost; it is re-radiated in all directions, instead of proceeding in a direct line to the screen. Kirchhoff was led by theoretical considerations to the conclusion that the dark bands in the solar spectrum were the reverse of the bright bands which would be produced by certain metals in their incandescent state, and he found that he could reverse the bright bands not only of sodium, but also of lithium, potassium, barium, and strontium.\*

Kirchhoff's theory was, that in the luminous atmosphere of the sun the vapours of various metals were present, each of which would give its characteristic system of bright lines; but behind this incandescent atmosphere containing metallic vapour was the still more intensely heated solid nucleus of the sun, which emits a brilliant continuous spectrum containing rays of all degrees of refrangibility. When the light of this intensely heated nucleus is transmitted through the incandescent photosphere of the sun, the bright lines which would be produced by that photosphere are reversed, and Fraunhofer's black lines are only the reversed bright lines which would be visible if the intensely heated nucleus were no longer there.

Kirchhoff was the first to demonstrate that the bright lines due to incandescent metals could be reversed by a stronger light transmitted through them, though the suggestion had already been made by Angstrom (1853); but to Kirchhoff the credit is fairly due of having inferred with strong probability the presence in the atmosphere of the sun, not only the incandescent vapour of sodium, but also of potassium, magnesium, iron, chromium, and nickel. He still farther carried the comparison to stellar light, and attributed the existence of lines in the thread-like beams of the distant stars to the absorbent action of certain other metallic vapours in their atmospheres. Kirchhoff's apparatus magnifies the solar spectrum to the extent of 18 feet, and he is engaged in viewing every part of it with the aid of magnifying powers. Sir David Brewster and Dr. Gladstone had recently published a map of the solar spectrum, showing upwards of 2,000

\* Professor Miller informs us that he has himself succeeded in doing the same with certain bright lines in the spectrum of the salts of copper.

of these black lines, but the portion of his new map which Kirchhoff has printed shows more lines than these and greater delicacy of delineation than has ever been attained before. Kirchhoff's portion from E to b (which is engraved in THE LONDON REVIEW, No. 52, p. 766), was exhibited in illustration of the great care and accuracy with which the mapping of these lines was now being carried on.

Dr. Miller then explained Steinheil's apparatus (already figured and described in THE LONDON REVIEW, No. 44), and drew attention to the great improvement made by the application of the small prism covering half the narrow slit for the admission of light, which cast down the solar or any other spectrum above that under examination, so that a perfect comparison could be made. For being side by side they could be read off together, the one being the vernier to the other, and so certain of Fraunhofer's lines being thus practically proved to be coincident with the bright ones of chromium, nickel, magnesium, &c., there could scarcely be a doubt that those corresponding dark lines in the solar spectrum were due to the reversed bright rays of those metals.

The microscopic phase of these investigations in the minuteness of their analyses was then dwelt upon; as was Bunsen's discovery of the new metals, cesium and rubidium, in such minute quantity that not more than three grains were obtainable from a ton of the waters in which they were detected in solution. With the exhibition on the screen of the spectra of these new metals, samples of which he had received through the kindness of Professor Bunsen and Professor Roscoe, Dr. Miller concluded his valuable lecture, which must be regarded as one of the great features of the Manchester meeting. We have not dwelt at length on the photographed spectra of the various metallic sparks from the induction coil and of the solar spectrum, which Dr. Miller exhibited, because he had previously read a paper in the morning in the chemical section upon this subject, the particulars of which we now append, and which, through the courtesy of Dr. Miller, we are enabled to illustrate with woodcut copies of the photographed spectra, which are novelties thus for the first time made public. By means of the small prism over the slit, the solar spectrum has in many cases been thrown down side by side with the metallic spectrum; but we have not always engraved every one of the numerous lines of the former, on account of the labour thus involved. We have given the chief prominent lines, and we have given at p. 437, Fig. 1, a careful copy of the photograph of it, and which can be used for comparison if required for the relationship of the less important bands.

The following, then, is the substance of Dr. Miller's paper:—

#### ON THE PHOTOGRAPHIC SPECTRA OF THE ELECTRIC LIGHT.

A plan of the apparatus by which the spectra may be photographed is shown in the figure. (Fig. 4). It consists of an ordinary camera-obscura, C, attached to the end of a long wooden tube, A, which opens into a cylindrical box, B, within which is a prism of heavy flint glass, or of bisulphide of carbon. At *l* is a lens of 15 inches



FIG. 4.—Apparatus for Photographing Spectra.

focal length, and at *s* is a slit parallel to the axis of the prism. The slit is adjusted so that it shall be distant from the lens 30 inches, or twice its focal length, and the screen of the camera is at an equal distance from the lens. The prism can be turned round its own axis by the lever, *l*, and the tube, A, can be adjusted so as to vary the angle with the brass tube, *e*; a small reflecting prism is, when necessary, placed so as to cover half the slit, *s*, and to reflect light from a second source so as to form a second spectrum on the plate, as in Steinheil's apparatus.

If the prism be so adjusted as to throw the solar rays reflected from a heliostat upon the screen of the camera, the wires which transmit the sparks from a Ruhmkorff's coil are placed in front of the uncovered portion of the slit, and the two spectra are simultaneously impressed. The solar beam is easily intercepted at the proper time by means of a small screen, and the electric spectrum is allowed to continue its action for two, three, or six minutes, as may be necessary.

Although with each of the metals—including platinum, gold, silver, copper, iron, bismuth, cadmium, zinc, aluminum, magnesium—when the spark was taken in air, decided photographs were obtained, it appeared that in each case the impressed spectrum was very nearly the same, proving that the lines produced were not those which were characteristic of the metal, but that they were the lines due to the incandescence of the air. These bright lines, it is important to observe, do not correspond to any black lines in the solar spectrum, apparently indicating the absence of nitrogen in the solar atmosphere.

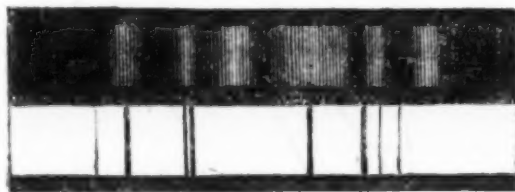


FIG. 5.—Platinum and Solar Spectra.

This was metal in air.

FIG. 11.—Visible, besides action of the surface, seen minutes in (Fig. 9).

FIG. 13.—ment, the effect. No photograph line produced Geissler's hydrogen Fig. 13 shows

FIG. 13.—stance, the Ruhmkorff's coil, and Angstrom particularly by the lines, which a Leyden jar be seen. Those burning.

Most of the spectrum shown is not due to the change present does become It was early the nature of the spectrum, which remark has been But the case



The peculiar lines of the metal seem to be chiefly confined to the *visible* portion of the spectrum, and these have little or no photographic power.

#### METALLIC SPECTRA, SHOWING CORRESPONDING BANDS.

FIG. 6.—Gold Spectrum.



FIG. 7.—Silver Spectrum.



FIG. 8.—Copper and Solar Spectra.†

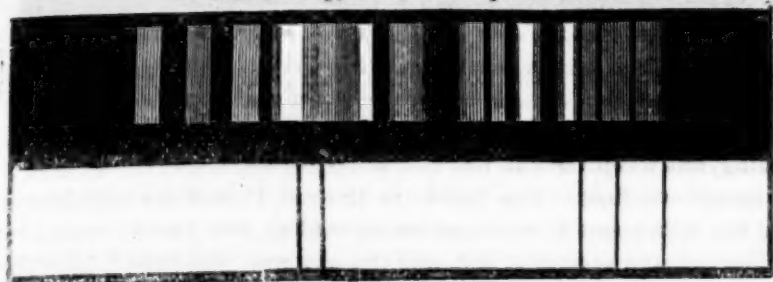
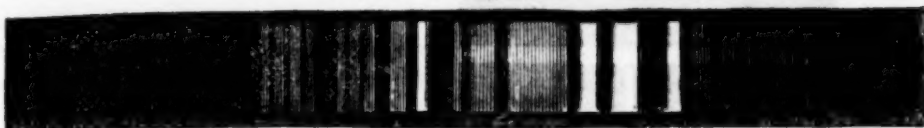


FIG. 9.—Iron Spectrum.

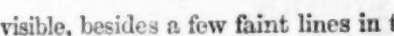


FIG. 10.—Zinc Spectrum.



This was singularly exemplified by repeating the experiments upon the same metal in air, and in a continuous current of pure hydrogen. In these experiments two iron or platinum wires were sealed into a bulb blown upon a long narrow tube which conveyed the gas under trial. Under these circumstances, for example, iron gave in hydrogen a spectrum in which a bright orange and a strong green band were visible, besides a few faint lines in the blue. Although the light produced by the action of the coil was allowed to fall for ten minutes upon a sensitive collodion surface, scarcely a trace of any action was perceived (Fig. 11); whilst in five minutes in the air, a powerful impression with numerous bands was obtained (Fig. 9).

FIG. 11.—Iron Spectrum in Hydrogen.



Similar results were obtained with platinum (Figs. 12 & 5). When carbonic acid was substituted for hydrogen, maintaining a continuous current of the pure gas during the whole experiment, the effect upon the sensitive plate was scarcely more marked.

No photographic impression was obtained in ten minutes of the brilliant red line produced by sending the discharge of Ruhmkorff's coil through one of Geissler's hydrogen vacua.

Fig. 13 shows a copy of the photographic spectrum produced by the violet line of light obtained from one of Geissler's nitrogen vacua. The lines produced by the different metals which are characteristic of them are best displayed by using, as Wheatstone did originally, somewhat feeble electrical discharges. When, for instance, the Leyden jar is introduced into the secondary current of the Ruhmkorff's coil, as practised by Grove, the light is principally produced, as Alter and Angstrom have shown, by the ignition of the atmospheric air, and particularly by the nitrogen. The spectrum will appear to be filled with brilliant lines, which are nearly the same, whatever electrodes are used; but if the Leyden jar be removed, the characteristic bands of the metals may be distinctly seen. Those of iron are only well seen when the metal is red-hot, but not actually burning.

Most of the metals give, as was remarked by Masson, a feeble continuous spectrum streaked by bright bands of varying intensity; and this sombre ground is not due to the ignition of the electrodes, as may be at once seen by the instant change presented in the appearance of the spectrum, if one of the electrodes does become incandescent.

It was early remarked by Mr. Talbot, that in the spectra of coloured flames the nature of the acid did not influence the position of the bright lines of the spectrum, which he found was dependent upon the metal employed, and this remark has been confirmed by all subsequent observers.

But the case is very different in the absorption bands produced by the vapours

† Focus rather shorter than that of other photographs.

of coloured bodies. There the nature of both constituents of the compound is essentially connected with the production of absorption bands. Chlorine combined with hydrogen gives no bands by absorption in any moderate thickness.

Chlorous acid and peroxide of chlorine both produce the same set of bands, while hypochlorous acid, although a strongly coloured vapour, and containing the same elements, oxygen and chlorine, produces no absorption bands. Again, the brownish-red vapours of perchloride of iron produce no absorption bands; but iron, when converted into vapour in a flame, gives out bands which are independent of the form in which it occurs combined.

These anomalies appear, however, to admit of an easy explanation, if we suppose that in every case the compound is decomposed in the flame, either simply by the high temperature, just as Grove has shown that water is. In other cases of the production of bright lines by the introduction of a metallic salt into the flame of burning bodies, the reducing influence of the hydrogen, and other combustible constituents of the burning body, would decompose the salt, liberating the metal, which, after producing its characteristic lines, would immediately become oxidized, and be carried off in the ascending current. In the voltaic arc this decomposition must of necessity take place by electrolytic action.

The compound gases, protoxide and deutoxide of nitrogen, give, when electrified, the same series of bright bands as Plücker has shown, which their constituents when uncombined furnish. Aqueous vapour always gives the bright lines due to hydrogen, and hydro-chloric acid the mixed system of lines which would be produced by incandescent hydrogen and chlorine.

There is obviously a marked difference between the effect of intense ignition upon most of the metallic and the non-metallic bodies.

The observations of Plücker upon the spectra of iodine, bromine, and chlorine, show that they give, when ignited, a very different series of bands to those which they furnish by absorption, as Dr. Gladstone has already pointed out; but it is interesting to remark that in the case of hydrogen, which, chemically, is so like a metal, we have a comparatively simple spectrum, in which the three principal bright lines correspond to Fraunhofer's dark lines, C, F, and G (Plücker). It is, however, to be specially noted, that hydrogen occasions no perceptible absorption bands at ordinary temperatures in such thicknesses as we can command in our experiments; and the vapour of boiling mercury is also destitute of any absorptive action, although mercury, when ignited by the electric spark, gives a characteristic and brilliant series.

The following experiment suggested itself to the author as a direct test of Kirchhoff's theory:—Two gas-burners, into which were introduced chloride of sodium on the wick of a spirit-lamp, were placed so as to illuminate equally the opposite sides of a sheet of paper partially greased; the rays of the electric light, screened from the photometric surface, suitably protected, were made to traverse one of the flames. If the yellow rays of the light were absorbed by the sodium flame, the light emitted laterally by the flame should be sensibly increased. The experiment, however, failed to indicate any such increase in the brilliancy of the flame, possibly because the eye is not sufficiently sensitive to detect the slight difference which was to be expected.

Dr. Miller's paper on the Spectra of the Electric Spark was followed, in the Chemical Section, by another valuable one by Dr. J. H. Gladstone, F.R.S.,

#### ON THE EMISSION AND ABSORPTION OF RAYS OF LIGHT BY CERTAIN GASES.

The author of this communication exhibited at the Leeds meeting of the British Association a map of the "atmospheric lines" of the solar spectrum, that is, those lines and bands which make their appearance in a linear spectrum only when the sun is near the horizon, and when, consequently, his rays traverse a great distance of air. Subsequently these observations were added to those previously made by Sir David Brewster, and a map was published by the two observers in their paper "On the Lines of the Solar Spectrum." On the announcement of the great principle of Kirchhoff, it occurred to the author that if the constituent of the atmosphere to which these absorption bands are owing, were rendered itself luminous by heat, it would probably emit rays coinciding with them in position. A comparison, however, of the rays of strongly-heated nitrogen, oxygen, water, and carbonic acid with these "atmospheric lines" led only to a negative result, as the author had stated in a short communication to the Royal Society. In that paper, however, the following points were either only just alluded to, or not mentioned at all.

Angstrom gives diagrams of the lines that appear when the electric spark traversing various gases is analysed by the prism. Plücker gives the refractive indices of the rays of the light of the electric discharge in Geissler's tubes, when the residuary gas consists of oxygen, &c. Now these observations do not agree in detail in regard to most gases, though they do in the case of hydrogen and mercury. Whence this disagreement? Is it a question of temperature? Between the lines of luminous oxygen, according to either physicist, and the "atmospheric lines," there is no coincidence whatever. Both observers assign to nitrogen a multiplicity of lines, stretching from the position of the fixed solar line C to near that of H; and the two most prominent lines in Angstrom's diagram agree with the atmospheric bands  $\delta$  and  $\epsilon$  (see annexed diagram, Fig. 3); but these bands are broad, and the non-appearance of other principal nitrogen lines in the atmospheric spectrum appears to prove that it is



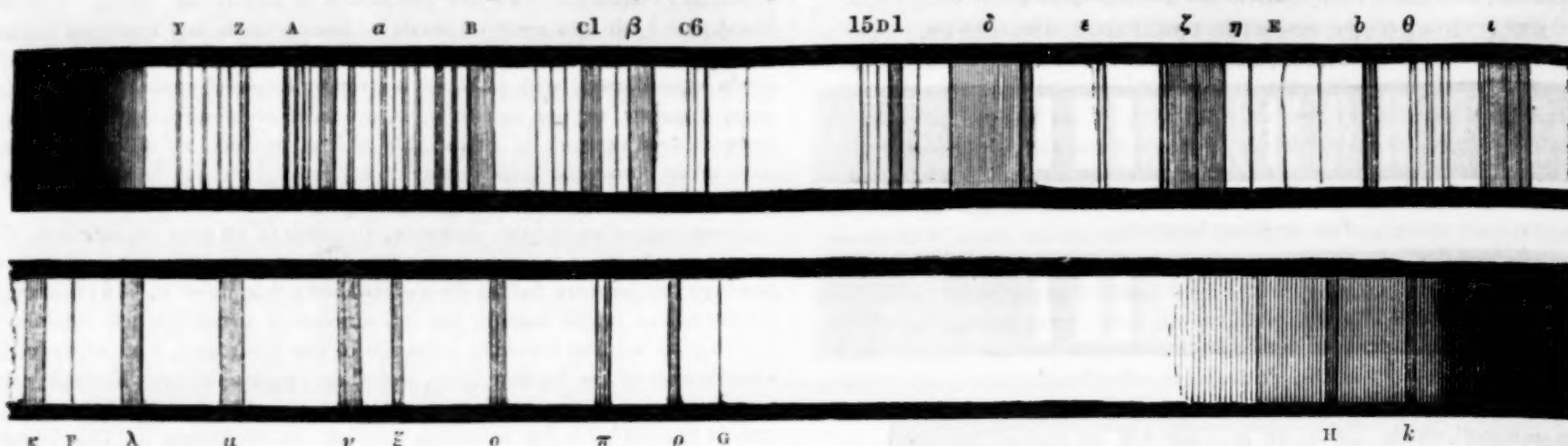
FIG. 1.—Hydrogen Spectrum.



FIG. 2.—Alcohol Spectrum from Spirit Lamp.



FIG. 3.—Atmospheric Lines of the Solar Spectrum, with the principal Lines of Fraunhofer.



only an accidental coincidence. The three luminous bands into which the light of hydrogen is resolved, according to both Angstrom and Plücker, agree apparently with C1, F, and ρ; but this also may be accidental. (See diagram, Fig. 1.)

The oxyhydrogen flame was considered by the author as containing, if not principally consisting of the light of vapour of water. It was found not to give the hydrogen lines just mentioned, but a continuous spectrum consisting principally of green and blue rays, which extended to about midway between the solar G and H. No dark lines made their appearance in the solar spectrum when viewed through a hydrogen flame. The blue flame of carbonic oxide burnt in air, and which contains, of course, carbonic acid, gave a continuous spectrum extending from about C to about K, where it ceased abruptly; and it was not crossed either by dark or brighter lines.

The alcohol flame of a spirit-lamp exhibits four luminous bands, the positions of which are shown in the diagram (Fig. 2); the first is faint and yellowish-green, the second brighter and bluish-green, the third faint and blue, while the fourth is a double line, much more luminous, and violet. The following are the refractive indices of the second and fourth bands, as compared with the refractive indices of the solar b and G seen through the same prism:—

Second line—bluish-green	... 1.6254	Solar b	... .. 1.6240
Fourth line—violet	... 1.6413	Solar G	... .. 1.6404

Angstrom has roughly delineated these.

That there is not necessarily a correspondence between the lines of absorption of a gas at the ordinary temperature, and the rays emitted by it at a high temperature, may be readily proved by a reference to some of the coloured gases. Iodine is a conspicuous example. Light which has passed through a small quantity of this vapour, at common temperatures, gives a spectrum crossed by a great number of absorption bands at regular intervals, as shown by Professor W. H. Miller. Angstrom observed other lines, when a spirit-lamp was burned, on the wick of which iodine had been placed; and the author found that the introduction of iodine vapour into a Bunsen's flame exhibits this phenomenon well, giving rise to a green flame, which is resolved by the prism into green light, distributing itself, more or less, into lines at some minutes' distance from one another, and fainter blue light, also marked by a group of luminous bands; but these bear no relation to the absorption bands above mentioned. Then Plücker has shown that the electric discharge taking place through rarified iodine vapour, gives seven bright lines—yellow, green, blue, and violet; but these bear no apparent relation to those of the green flame just described, or to the absorption bands of the same vapour at the ordinary temperature.

During the brilliant thunderstorm that passed over London on the night of July 2, 1859, the linear spectrum of lightning was frequently obtained. It was continuous, showing all the colours from red to violet. The author, and a friend who was with him at the time, believed there were also indications of bands of greater luminosity, especially in the green and violet portions; but the suddenness of the lightning flash leaves much scope for fancy, and the existence of these bands must be still considered doubtful.

By the prismatic analysis of light that has passed through our atmosphere we can demonstrate the absence of the coloured gases, such as iodine, bromine, chlorine, chlorous acid, and red nitrous fumes, from the constituents of the air. The presence of most minute quantities of these would render itself visible by its absorbent effect, especially when the solar light has to pass through hundreds of miles of air as it does when the sun is near the horizon. The author found that a layer of about one-hundredth part of an inch of bromine vapour interposed between his eye and the object-glass of his refractive goniometer sufficed to exhibit the regular bars delineated by Professor W. A. Miller; and, from this, he had estimated that if free bromine constituted one part in a thousand million parts of the atmosphere, it would betray its presence by bands of absorption at sunset. Yet there is no trace of such bands. This estimation, however, proceeds on the assumption that a gas almost infinitely diffused along a given line produces the same absorbent effect as if its particles were all near together at some point along that line, an assumption about the lawfulness of which two opinions may be held.

There is certainly some substance in the air which produces the atmospheric bands. If in considerable quantity, its absorbent power must be extremely small; but it may be, as Professor Stokes suggests, some gas of which the proportion is very minute. The proportion also varies, in all probability, in different places and at different times. And, moreover, there seems reason to believe that there is more than one substance concerned in the production of these atmospheric lines, for they vary in intensity as compared with one another on different

occasions. Thus, on June 15th of this year, the following note was made:—"In the evening, but when the sun was still some degrees above the horizon, I looked at the atmospheric lines. The bands in the red, C, and the neighbouring lines, C 6, and the lines about D, were extremely evident, but I could scarcely detect δ or η. The day was extremely hot, and the sky was cloudless." Now the bands, δ and η, are generally visible in rainy weather, even when the sun is at a considerable altitude.

#### MR. CROOKES' PHOTOGRAPHS OF ELECTRIC METALLIC SPARKS.

The following four spectra of mercury (Fig. 1), tin (Fig. 2), lead (Fig. 3), and bismuth (Fig. 4), as shown by the

ordinary voltaic spark, are copies of the photographs referred to by Dr. Miller, as given him in the Section Room at Manchester by Professor Wheatstone. They were executed by Mr. Crookes in 1853, and we hope shortly to present drawings of the beautiful and exquisitely sharp photographs of the solar spectrum which that gentleman has taken by the use of a rock-crystal prism, and which show a considerable number of lines beyond Stokes' line T, and which are higher in the series than any hitherto detected.

## Reviews of Books.

### THE HISTORY OF THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND.\*

THERE is no period more important in the history of any community, whether of a civil or an ecclesiastical character, whether nation or Church, than that in which, after any violent commotion, it begins to re-settle down into a state of tranquillity and steadiness. And more especially is this the case when the changes which it has experienced still bear with them traces of the heavings and convulsions by which they have been effected; or even show, by the continuance of internal struggles, that the fire which has caused these convulsions is smothered rather than extinguished; so that it requires careful vigilance and also great practical wisdom to prevent it from breaking forth again, to the undoing of its past work, if not to the destruction of everything that may be liable to be affected by it.

Such, in a great degree, was the condition of the Church of England at the death of Queen Elizabeth. Fortunately for the country a variety of motives—among which it will be doing no injustice to her character to believe that really religious considerations had the smallest place,—had led her to put down Popery with a high hand, and to re-establish the Reformed religion as the established faith of the kingdom. And the length of her life had given solidity to arrangements, which, after the changeable agitation of the last three reigns, greatly required time to become rooted in the reason and affections of the people.

Indeed, almost from the beginning discord began to show itself in the Reformed Church. Many of our Reformers had imbibed the stern doctrines of Calvin, and with them a dislike of ceremonies and outward emblems which, in their eyes, still savoured of the abominations of Rome. Hooper, who died at the stake in Mary's reign, long refused to become a bishop, from his unwillingness to wear the episcopal robes, and many men of great learning and undoubted piety and sincerity, looked up to him as their model and leader. Burleigh and Walsingham both leant to these opinions, but Elizabeth, as may easily be supposed, had no sympathy with such scruples, or with any others that could lead to disobedience to her will. She was, of course, resolute in asserting the supremacy of the State—that is to say, of herself—over the Church, but, as regarded the authority of the Church over all its members but herself, she was an unflinching High Churchwoman. Accordingly she persecuted the Puritans, as they began to be called, with as much rigour as she persecuted Papists; perhaps the more because they afforded her fewer opportunities for displaying her skill in theological argument. But her severities, as was seen within half a century after her death, had wholly failed to eradicate the obstinacy which she had proposed to herself to crush. And, indeed, the fact pointed out by Mr. Perry, that "At the very same time that she was persecuting the Puritans in England, she was supporting the

\* The History of the Church of England, from the death of Elizabeth to the present time. By the Rev. G. G. Perry, Rector of Waddington, and late Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. Saunders, Otley, & Co.

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professors of the same opinions by her influence, money, and arms, in Scotland, France, and the Low Countries" (p. 13), must have lessened the effect of her measures, by depriving her of the respect in some degree due even to a bigot when conscientious.

Mr. Perry sets forth truly and forcibly the selfish and capricious intolerance of the Queen, whose character, as he justly remarks, "made a temperate and judicious Church reform extremely difficult;" and the grasping covetousness with which, like her father, she laid her hands on the revenues of the Church, and reduced numbers of its ministers to beggary, while at the same time he condemns with equal plainness "the bitter and litigious spirit [of the Puritans], who could think themselves justified in convulsing, worrying, and distracting the young Church, struggling towards maturity and strength amidst the greatest obstacles, on the miserable questions of Church vestments, or the insignificant matter of the use of the Cross in baptism;" and especially the leaders of that party "who, often for their own selfish ends, strove to lead the people away from the Church, and at length succeeded for a time, by the aid of their misguided followers, in persecuting and overthrowing it" (p. 16).

The points of difference, however, between the Puritans and the Church party, were not all of so trivial a character. On the subject of predestination, of the spiritual presence in the Eucharist, and on the more practical question of the observance of Sunday, the antagonism of the two parties was substantial and important, and is explained very lucidly though very briefly by our author. It was while men's minds were thus divided, the numbers on each side being, it would seem, pretty equal in the nation, that James came to the throne. In no country in Europe had the Reformation assumed so unattractive a form as in Scotland; and James, bringing from thence a hatred founded on many a bitter recollection of the stern intolerance, and (what probably grated still more on his own notions of personal consequence) of the disrespectful arrogance of Knox and his followers, took his ground at once as the patron of the Church party. And the decision with which he closed the Hampton Conference, at which he soon laid aside the character of an umpire, and took a prominent part in the discussion, had, doubtless, been predetermined in his own mind when he adopted the impolitic, because unfair step, of himself nominating the divines who were to conduct the discussion on behalf of the Puritans.

James's churchmanship, however, though equally decided with that of Elizabeth, rested on a somewhat different foundation. "He did not regard the Church simply as an engine of the State, but suffered it to range itself side by side with the throne, joined in a community of interest upon the principle of no bishop, no king." He was, therefore, a staunch champion of the theory of the Apostolical succession, which had been introduced in the latter years of his predecessor's reign, having been derived, according to Mr. Perry, from the teaching of a Spanish monk of the name of Saravia. It was unfortunate for the Church that she soon lost that eminent man whose talents and virtues might have reconciled even the Puritans to this doctrine, Archbishop Whitgift, who died at the beginning of 1604. Cartwright, the most learned and able, as well as the most moderate and honest of the Puritan divines, had died a few weeks earlier, deeply repenting, it is said, "of the unnecessary trouble which he had caused in the Church by the schism he had been the great fomentor of; and wishing that he was to begin his life again, that he might testify to the world the dislike he had of his former ways." That schism had, indeed, brought with it some compensation, as having been the cause which induced Hooker to compose his incomparable "Treatise on Ecclesiastical Polity;" but still it was pregnant with terrible evils to both Church and nation; and if this feeling be correctly attributed to him, it is hard to say how much was lost by the removal of these two leaders, who, in spite of their theoretical differences, had learnt to respect one another, and whose efforts might have been successful in healing the divisions which soon began to sever their followers more wider than ever. The week after Whitgift's death James issued his proclamation, establishing the use of the new Prayer-book. There was not much in it that was new; and in the changes that had been introduced, and which were of no great importance, the Archbishop had, of course, had the principal voice; but it is probable that the terms of the proclamation, as well as those of the King's speech to his Parliament when he touched on Church matters, would have been greatly modified had he been still alive to pour his pacific and salutary counsels into the King's ear. Mr. Perry tells us that he "had been extremely nervous about the meeting of the new Parliament, apprehending some great danger to the Church." And these apprehensions were put in a train for being fully realized by the strong language employed by the King on this occasion in denouncing the Puritans, of whom he spoke far more severely than of the Papists, thus exasperating not only them, but also the House of Commons, a large number of whom had a great leaning towards the Puritan doctrines. Nor would the dying Archbishop's fears have been diminished had he known that Bancroft was to be his successor, who, though a learned and pious man, was of a furious temper, disdaining all arts of conciliation, and wholly unfit to govern the Church in such a crisis, when she was not only beleaguered by enemies on both sides, but had almost as much to fear from the indiscretion of her champions, and especially of her sovereign protector, the learned, silly, blustering, and vacillating James.

Bancroft soon began to show the temper in which he was prepared to administer the government of the Church; numbers of the clergy who hesitated to subscribe to the new Articles of Conformity, even though they promised to conform to them, were ejected from their livings; and the servile judges of that day pronounced that even "to petition the King for the redress of grievances real or supposed, as the Puritans had done, was an offence fineable at discretion, and very near treason and felony." It is hard to find any excuse for men who, like the greater part of the ejected ministers, preferred creating a schism in the Church to complying with a form, to the essence of which, by their own admission, they had no objection; but their fault is no excuse for the impolitic severity of the archbishop and the King; and much less for the corrupt judges, who showed

themselves thus ready to pervert the law to gratify the arbitrary notions of self-importance of one of the worst sovereigns who ever sat on a throne.

Numbers of the Nonconformists thus ejected, and of their followers, fled into Holland, where, since the revolt of that country from the tyranny of Philip, doctrines similar to those which they professed had generally prevailed. Those who remained behind James sought in some degree to pacify by persecuting the Papists with still greater severity. The Papists did not flee, but sought rather to save themselves by destroying him, his family, and his councillors at one blow, and so gave him a tolerably legitimate excuse for enacting fresh laws against them; and more especially against the foreigners who professed the Roman Catholic religion. Meanwhile, the tendency of the Church to depart more and more from the doctrines of Calvin, which in the reigns of Edward and Elizabeth had had so great an influence over the framers of the Articles, received an additional impulse from the events which were taking place in Holland, where Von Harmin (better known to English readers by his Latinized name of Arminius), professor of divinity at Leyden, had published a treatise against the Supralapsarians, and had also attacked the Sublapsarian doctrine with an amount of learning which, joined to his firmness and his undoubted piety, had had a great effect on his own countrymen; and which, as Mr. Perry says, gave "form and substance to opinions destined to exercise a powerful influence upon the theology of the Church of England, and to emancipate the religious mind of Protestant Christianity from a slavish obedience to the assumptions of Calvinism." Bancroft's opinions coincided with those of Arminius, so much so that Lord Clarendon praises him for having "almost rescued the Church out of the hands of the Calvinist party;" and considers that "if he had lived, he would quickly have extinguished all that fire in England which had been kindled at Geneva." He died, however, when he had held the primacy scarcely six years; and was succeeded by Abbot, who was his entire opposite in every point but his want of charity for those who disagreed with him in opinion; for Abbot was a vehement espouser of Calvin's doctrines, and an open favourer of the Puritan party; and he owed his promotion to the influence of Lord Dunbar, whom James had found his ablest instrument in restoring Episcopacy in Scotland, and in establishing in that kingdom a Court of High Commission, in imitation of that which existed in England.

In one respect Abbot's reign over the Church was inaugurated well. He became Archbishop at the end of 1610; and by the spring of the ensuing year the new translation of the Bible, which had been begun four years before, was finished, and published, to the great delight of the people in general, though the Roman Catholics found fault with it, on the ground that, as they alleged, no new translation was required; and the Puritans were dissatisfied with the supersession by it of "the Geneva version, with their favourite marginal notes of Calvinian theology."

"But upon the whole," proceeds our author, "this great work was well received, as indeed it well deserved to be. It was certainly the most useful work in which King James was concerned, and has gone far to redeem him from the contempt and reprobation of posterity. As we contemplate him as he stands in the school quadrangle at Oxford, with the Bible in his hand, we forget his feeble tyranny and coarse buffoonery, in the remembrance of the fact that Protestant Christianity has found its great bulwark, guide, and solace, in that most accurate and felicitous of versions of the Word of God which was perfected under his influence and direction" (p. 200).

But in other respects the state of affairs was less promising. The miserable poverty of the great body of the clergy, which, to use the words of George Herbert, had at that time cast "general ignominy on their profession," when contrasted with the vast amount of preferments and wealth engrossed by a favoured few, afforded a constant topic to those who, out of the defective administration of the Church revenues, sought to make a handle for attacking the Church itself. The atrocious persecution of ignorant but harmless fanatics, some of whom were burnt at Smithfield and other places, disgusted the whole nation; while it appeared at the same time that the King's arbitrary inhumanity proceeded from no strong or settled convictions. He threw himself, indeed, with violence into the controversy with the Arminians, wrote a book against Vorst, and condescended to instruct his ambassador to urge upon the Dutch Government the propriety of extinguishing his heresy by means similar to those which he himself had been employing against Legate and Wightman. At the same time he began to look with favour on Laud, who was rising into notice at Oxford, where he was recognized as the leader of the party most opposed to the Calvinists, and was thinking of punishing Archbishop Abbot, the chief support of the Calvinist doctrines, by translating him to an inferior see. The way in which he bestowed bishoprics was a still greater proof of his vacillating state of mind; the court which, like the King, if not very religious, was very full of theological learning, and very violent in the display of it and of party zeal, was divided into two factions, each in turn obtaining promotion for its friends, and each reproaching the sovereign for the favour shown to its adversaries as the cause of all the evils that disquieted him and the kingdom.

"When His Majesty wondered at the growth of Puritanism, he was answered by the High Church courtiers that it was because he made Puritans bishops; and when he declaimed against the Romanists, it was suggested by the favourers of Calvin that there were some on the bench who did not hold the Pope to be Antichrist" (p. 242).

In the events which affected the royal family itself, both parties alternately found comfort and discomfort. The Puritans grieved at the death of Prince Henry, whom they had looked upon as likely to prove a firm protector of their freedom, and (with probably much less reason) a resolute depressor of the hated monster episcopacy, expressing their anticipations in a doggerel rhyme:—

"Henry the Eighth pulled down abbey and cells,  
But Henry the Ninth shall pull down bishops and bells."

But they were proportionately delighted at the marriage of the Princess Elizabeth to the Elector Palatine, whom they looked upon as the chief continental pillar



of what they were pleased to consider the only true Protestantism. Presently, however, the Elector fell out of favour with James for disregarding his advice on the subject of the Bohemian crown, and then, though the King had lately sent over some English divines to the Synod of Dort, and had, by his influence, greatly contributed to the condemnation passed by that assembly on the Arminians, he began to listen to the counsels of the Spanish court, which, like all Roman Catholics, of course looked upon the Puritans as the most odious of all the Protestant sects. To gratify the Spaniards, he began to show favour to the High Church party, a feeling which gained strength in his mind, when Abbot also fell under his displeasure for advocating the cause of the Elector. After a few more years of such vacillation he died, leaving his successor a throne that, in spite of his boasted kingcraft, and his equally cherished theological learning, his conduct both in civil and ecclesiastical affairs had surrounded with difficulties, which even at first sight looked most serious, and which, in their eventual results, were destined to prove fatal to the King, and for a time equally fatal to the liberties of the nation, and the very existence of the Church.

Before his accession, Charles, as is well known, had gone to Madrid with the view of marrying a Spanish princess. Abbot had vehemently remonstrated with James on the danger of this step, declaring that the King, in permitting it, was "labouring to set up the most damnable and heretical doctrine of the Church of Rome." We can hardly agree with Mr. Perry's approval of the archbishop's remonstrance, or with his opinion that "there is no doubt that in this journey to Spain the Prince was in considerable danger" (p. 309). But it is certain that the Spaniards and the Pope both conceived hopes that the journey indicated a disposition on the Prince's part to look with favour on the Papal religion, and that great efforts were made by both of them to induce him to conform to it. Charles, however, repelled all the advances made to him with this view with address and firmness. His chaplains had taken out with them a copious body of minute directions for the daily performance of the service of the Church of England; and it is not without some amusement that we learn from Mr. Perry that it was now for the first time that the Spaniards learnt that "the English had a religion." This fact had been greatly doubted in Spain, where the general opinion was that the English nation was entirely infidel, and only used holy names in blasphemies and curses."

On his accession to the throne, Charles at once showed himself averse to the Calvinistic doctrine. His principal adviser in all Church matters was Laud, now Bishop of Bath and Wells, and Laud had, from the beginning, been an Arminian. But the House of Commons, too, at this time, took a great interest in theological discussion, and a great majority of that body were of a directly opposite opinion. At last, under the influence of some leaders among them, of whom Oliver Cromwell was one of the most zealous, they even went so far as to present to the King a formal address, stating that "they beheld with sorrow a daily growth and spreading of the faction of the Arminians"—a remonstrance which Mr. Perry probably does not greatly err in considering as one "meant more against persons than against doctrines," and as especially aimed at Laud, as the King's principal adviser; for, by a scandalous stretch of power, Charles had suspended Archbishop Abbot; and Laud, as the leading member of the Commission for executing the duties of the Primacy during the Abbot's suspension, had been himself virtually Primate. Unhappily, though a man of learning, virtue, and sincere piety, Laud had not the art of making friends, nor the conciliatory manners towards his adversaries so necessary for one in his high office. That he has been unduly maligned is unquestionable; and Mr. Perry triumphantly vindicates his memory from many of the charges which Mr. Hallam brings against him on the sole authority of Neal, and without giving himself the trouble to consult the original papers which would have convinced him of Neal's want of candour. Still it is undeniable that he wanted not only judgment and temper, but that largeness of mind which can alone fit a man to exercise authority, especially over a body like the Church of England, where the line between lawful freedom of opinion and heretical disobedience is often so indistinctly marked. From Bath and Wells Laud was promoted to the See of London; and, on the death of Abbot, in 1633, he was made Primate. If he had carried things with a high hand before, he gave more proofs of his arbitrary temper now. Fostered by his influential care, the court of the Star-chamber began to assume a prominence which it had never possessed before, and to issue those edicts and pass those sentences which have ever since made its name a by-word for arbitrary and illegal authority. The inhuman severity with which Prynne and Bastwick were treated is sufficiently notorious; and yet perhaps even those and similar atrocities did not give such general nor such deep offence as the publication of the "Book of Sports," which enjoined the celebration of wakes and other feasts on the Sunday. Some of the clergy refused to publish it in their churches, and were suspended or otherwise punished for their recusancy; others showed their disapproval of it by reading the fourth commandment directly after it. The Puritans, inclined by nature to the most morose views of religion, were furious, and even of those who differed from them on this point, numbers felt it go against their grain to be ordered to be merry by royal command.

Mr. Perry gives a very full account of the great Convocation of 1640, which was charged with the important duty of framing Canons for the Church, and explains (from Heylin) the history of the unfortunate "Et Cætera oath," which, though drawn up in that form by a mere piece of accidental carelessness, did, by the appearance which it wore of laying a trap for all with whom the Court or the Archbishop might be offended, do more harm than all the other acts of the Convocation did good. In fact, throughout this volume, the first of three, in which the History of the Church of England to the present day is to be comprised, he leaves nothing untold; and, as far as it is possible, conceals his own prepossessions for either of the factions which have at all times divided the Church. While he does full justice to Laud's reforms he never scruples exposing his mistakes, his narrow-mindedness, his grave errors of both judgment and conduct. But these will be more fitly examined when we come to his account of his fall into

the hands of his enemies. In this volume he leaves him dreading the coming meeting of Parliament, and fancying the most trivial occurrences omens of danger to himself.

Mr. Perry does not limit his account of ecclesiastical transactions to England. He gives a brief but luminous account of the establishment of a Protestant episcopacy in Scotland, and of the progress of the Reformation in Ireland, where Henry and Elizabeth had plundered the Church with still more shameless rapacity than they had displayed in England, and had reduced it to such a state of helpless indigence that in many dioceses every exercise of religion was suppressed through the seizure of all the endowments which should have supported those who might have performed them. He furnishes us also with means of estimating the characters of many of those eminent churchmen and divines to whom the religion of these islands is so greatly indebted, setting before us vivid portraits of such men as Hammond, Chillingworth, George Herbert, the great Archbishop Usher, Sir Thomas Browne, Donne, and others, who did religion inestimable service in their own day; and who enable us of the present day to boast that our language is as rich in learned and valuable works of theological controversy as in any other department of its profound and varied literature.

Mr. Perry's view of the Church at this time, as a whole, inclines him to think more highly of the lower orders of the clergy than of the higher. "The bishops in their pride of place cast it (the English Church) down; but the humble, patient, longsuffering parish-priests of England raised it up. To tell the story of its fall and of its rise; of the meek endurance of the clergy, and of its reward; of the religious mania of the nation, and its gradual resipiscence, is the difficult but grateful task he proposes to himself in the next volume.

#### LADY J. LOCKWOOD'S "LIFE OF CYRUS."\*

ONCE upon a time there lived in Paris a Popish Abbé, named Rollin, who wrote a book entitled "L'Histoire ancienne des Egyptiens, des Carthaginois, des Assyriens, des Babyloniens, &c." This book was afterwards translated into English, and has appeared in a variety of editions; and of these it is necessary, in the examination of the Lady Julia Lockwood's "Life of Cyrus" now before us, to refer to the duodecimo edition, published in twelve volumes, in London, in the year 1810.

The Abbé Rollin, in his "Ancient History," devoted a considerable space to "The Life of Cyrus," basing it almost exclusively upon "the Cyropædia" of Xenophon; and his reason for so doing is thus stated by him:—

"The substance of the facts and events he (Xenophon) relates are to be deemed true; and of this their conformity with the Holy Scripture is of itself a sufficient proof." (Vol. II., p. 282, English Translation. London, 1810.)

From the Abbé Rollin we turn to the Lady Julia Lockwood, and here are the motives that influenced her ladyship in publishing a "Life of Cyrus," stated in her own words:—

"My dear Willie,—In the absence of my son and daughter, your uncle and mother, I have endeavoured to amuse my solitary hours by writing what I trust may be useful and instructive to you and to others of your age.

"I, therefore, dedicate to you this 'Life of Cyrus,' who, at your age, was one of my favourite heroes, and one most worthy to be copied for his virtues and valour. He is also a remarkable character in history, both sacred and profane.

"May you, like him, be ready to listen to the advice of Daniel, study his prophecies, and watch the times and seasons, and long for your Saviour's coming! (Dedication, pp. 7, 8).

Here, it will be observed, there is not the slightest reference made to the Pagan Xenophon nor the Papist Rollin. Accepting this dedication according to the ordinary sense and meaning of the words used, it would naturally be concluded that the pages that followed were the composition of the titled authoress; that the book was the result of careful examination into ancient authorities, and the sole reason for its publication a desire to instil a love of virtue, valour, and—of course—truth, into the hearts of the young!

The utter worthlessness of Xenophon's "Cyropædia" as a piece of veritable biography, has long since been determined by the best scholars who have devoted their attention to its details. It is "an historical romance"—it is not the truth; but the Abbé Rollin, having chosen to consider it as "the truth," because he regarded it as being more in conformity with the Scriptures than the narratives of Herodotus and of Ctesias, and the Lady Julia Lockwood having chosen Rollin as her guide, was, we conceive, bound in candour to state not that she had written a "Life of Cyrus," but that she had copied, with very slight variations, "The Life of Cyrus" as it is to be found translated into English in all copies similar to that published in London in 1810. A few parallel passages will show how slight is Lady Julia Lockwood's claim to the title of an author:—

#### ROLLIN.

"The Persians were at this time divided into twelve tribes, and inhabited only one province of that vast country, which has since borne the name of Persia, and were not in all above 120,000 men. But this people having afterwards, through the wisdom and valour of Cyrus, acquired the empire of the East, the name of Persia extended itself with their conquests and fortune, and comprehended all that vast tract of country which reaches from east to west, from the river Indus to the Tigris; and from north to south, from the Caspian sea to the ocean."—English Translation, vol. ii., p. 283.

"Cyrus was beautiful in his person, and still more deserving of esteem for the qualities of his mind; was of a very sweet disposition, full of good nature and humanity, and had a great desire for learning and a noble ardour for glory. He was never afraid of any danger, or discouraged by any hardship, or difficulty, when honour was to be acquired."—English Translation, vol. ii., pp. 283, 284.

#### LADY J. LOCKWOOD.

"The Persians, at the time of the birth of Cyrus, only consisted of twelve tribes, who numbered not more than 120,000 men, inhabiting a small province of their, afterwards, vast empire. Through the wisdom and valour of Cyrus, they acquired the empire of the East,—extending eastward to the river Indus, and westward to the Tigris,—while it stretched to the north and to the south, from the Caspian sea to the ocean."—Cyrus, p. 2.

"The young Cyrus was beautiful in his person, and still more lovely for the qualities of his mind. His disposition was full of frankness and good-nature, humanity and sweetness; he had a very evident desire to learn, and a noble ardour in whatever was great and good, never being discouraged by any hardship or difficulty, but rather regarding them as encouragements to proceed in whatever he had undertaken to do."—Cyrus, pp. 2, 3.

\* Cyrus, King of Persia and Media: his Life and Character. For the Use of the Young. By the Lady Julia Lockwood. London: Saunders, Otley, & Co., 69, Brook-street, Hanover-square, W. 1861.

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"Boys were after one un was regulated exercises, the their meat and of punishment p. 284.

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## ROLLIN.

"The education of children was looked upon as the most important duty, and the most essential part of government: it was not left to the care of fathers and mothers, whose blind affection and fondness often render them incapable of that office; but the State took it upon themselves."—*English Translation*, vol. ii., p. 284.

"Boys were all brought up in common, after one uniform manner; where everything was regulated,—the place and length of their exercises, the times of eating, the quality of their meat and drink, and their different kinds of punishment."—*English Translation*, vol. ii., p. 284.

"The only food allowed either the children or the young men was bread, cresses, and water; for their design was to accustom them early to temperance and sobriety. Besides, they considered that a plain, frugal diet, without any mixture of sauces or ragouts, would strengthen the body, and lay such a foundation of health as would enable them to undergo the hardships and fatigues of war to a good old age."—*English Translation*, vol. ii., p. 284.

We do not deem it necessary, in giving further extracts, to show what is the proper designation to be applied to a book, which purports to be written for the edification of youth, and to inspire them at the same time with a love of truth, and a reverence for the Scriptures!

Rollin, "the historian," was a very vain man, and had he lived to witness how his labour in giving a synopsis of the "Cyropædia" had been appropriated, wholesale and without a word of acknowledgment, by a pious Protestant lady, we fear that even the proverbial gallantry of his nature would have given way, and that he would have denounced the appropriation in stronger terms than we can permit ourselves to use.

Lady Julia Lockwood's "Life of Cyrus" is utterly worthless, because it is, for the most part, a republication, with a few verbal alterations, of an old English translation of Rollin's abridged version of the "Cyropædia;" and Rollin himself is worthless as an historical authority; and the "Cyropædia" itself is worthless as a genuine biography of the real historical Cyrus, the conqueror of the Medes and the Babylonians,—that is, of "the Cyrus" whose name appeared in the prophecy of Isaiah before he was born, and who was the contemporary of the prophet Daniel.

The opinion of an able and judicious French critic upon Rollin's labours as an historian is to the effect, that he was careless as a chronologist, inaccurate in his facts, not to be trusted as an authority, and a wholesale plagiarist:—

"On s'est plaint avec raison que la chronologie n'est ni exacte, ni suivie; qu'il y a beaucoup d'inexactitudes dans les faits; que l'auteur n'a pas assez examiné les exagérations des anciens historiens; que son style n'est pas égal, et cette inégalité vient de ce que l'auteur a emprunté dans ses ouvrages modernes des 20 et 30 pages de suite."

The last grave charge, it will be observed, that is made against Rollin is, that he has treated others as the English translation of his "Ancient History" has been treated by Lady Julia Lockwood.

Rollin's "Life of Cyrus" is, with the exception of a few passages, taken from the "Cyropædia." And now we have to see what is the opinion entertained by the best scholars as to that composition. The estimation of the "Cyropædia" by the ancients is embodied in a single sentence of Cicero's, "that it was written, not as a portraiture to be regarded as historically accurate, but as the representation of what a good government should be"—"Non ad historice fidem scriptus, sed ad effigiem justis imperii." As to the opinion of modern scholars, it is fully represented in the following passage, taken from that great repository of classical knowledge, "Smith's Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography and Mythology:"—

"With respect to the main points of difference between Herodotus and the 'Cyropædia,' besides what has been said above of the historical value of Xenophon's book, if it could be viewed as a history at all, its real design is the great thing to be kept in view; and that design is stated by Xenophon himself with sufficient clearness. He wished to show that the government of men is not so difficult as is commonly supposed, provided that the ruler be wise; and to illustrate this he holds forth the example of Cyrus, whom he endows with all virtue, courage, and wisdom, and whose conduct is meant for a practical illustration, and his discourses for an exposition of the maxims of the Socratic philosophy, so far as Xenophon was capable of understanding it. Of course it would not have done to have represented this beau idéal of a philosopher king as the dethroner of his own grandfather, as the true Asiatic despot and conqueror, and as the victim of his own ambitious schemes. It seems incredible that any one should rise from the perusal of the 'Cyropædia' without the firm conviction that it is a romance, and moreover that its author never meant it to be taken for anything else; and still more incredible is it that any one should have recognized in the picture of Xenophon the verisimilitude of an Asiatic conqueror in the sixth century before Christ. That Cyrus was a great man is proved by the empire he established; that he was a good man according to the virtues of his age and country we need not doubt; but if we would seek further for his likeness we must assuredly look rather at Genghis Khan or Timour than the Cyrus of Xenophon" (vol. i., pp. 922, 923).

It will be seen that even if Lady Julia Lockwood had avowed the authorities on which her "Life of Cyrus" rests, they would be found of no value. Xenophon's Cyropædia is "a romance," and truth repels all aid from fiction. There was a time when "pious frauds" were deemed to be permissible, but that period has passed away, we hope, for ever. At least no lady of the "reformed" religion should seek for aid from an historian, who, when living, was a believer in the miracles of the "Convulsionaires," and a worshipper at the tomb of the defunct Jansenist, Paris.

If Lady Julia Lockwood wishes to devote her leisure hours to writing "A Life of Cyrus," abundant materials will be found in the pages of Herodotus, and of the physician Ctesias, who were contemporaries, and lived nearest to the time

## LADY J. LOCKWOOD.

"The education of their children was looked upon as their most important duty, and the most essential part of their government; nor was it left to the discretion of the fathers and mothers, whose blind affection often renders them very unfit for so solemn a duty. The State therefore took that charge on itself."—*Cyrus*, p. 4.

"Boys were brought up in common, and after one uniform manner. Everything was regulated,—the place and amount of their exercises, the times of eating, the quality of their food, and their different kinds of punishments."—*Cyrus*, pp. 4, 5.

"The only food allowed either to the children or to the young men was bread, cresses, and water; for theirs was not a climate in which animal food was necessary; and their design was to accustom them early to temperance and sobriety. Besides which they considered that a plain, frugal diet, without any mixtures of sauces and seasoning, would strengthen the body, and lay such a foundation as should enable them to undergo the hardships and fatigues of war, even to a good old age."—*Cyrus*, p. 5.

when the events occurred that are recorded by them; whilst in the following extracts will be found suggestions and facts sufficient to show, first, that Xenophon is not to be depended upon as a biographer, and next, how the language and statements of Scripture are to be reconciled with those of the profane writers when treating upon the reign of "Cyrus the Elder."

"It has been supposed that the statement of Xenophon about Cyaxares II. is confirmed by Scripture; for that Darius the Mede, who, according to Daniel, reigns after the taking of Babylon (for two years, according to the chronologers), and before the first year of Cyrus, can be no other (this is the utmost that is asserted) than Cyaxares II. This matter seems susceptible of a better explanation than it has yet received.

"1. Xenophon's Cyaxares is the son of Astyages; Darius the Mede is the son of Ahasuerus. Now, it is almost beyond a doubt that Ahasuerus is the Hebrew form of the Persian name or title which the Greeks call Xerxes, and Cyaxares seems to be simply the form of the same word used in the Median dialect. Cyaxares, the son of Phraortes, is called Ahasuerus in Tobit xiv. 15. It is granted that this argument is not decisive, but so far as it goes it is against the identification.

"2. After the taking of Babylon, Darius the Mede receives the kingdom, and exercises all the functions of royalty with great power and splendour, evidently at Babylon. But in Xenophon it is Cyrus who does this, and Cyaxares never comes near Babylon at all after its capture, but remains in Media, totally eclipsed and almost superseded by Cyrus. There are other arguments which seem to show clearly that, whoever Darius the Mede may have been (a point difficult enough to decide), he was not the Cyaxares of Xenophon. The matter cannot be further discussed here; but the result of a most careful examination of it is, that in some important points the statements of Xenophon cannot be reconciled with those of Daniel; and that a much more probable explanation is, that Darius was a noble Median, who held the sovereignty, as the viceroy of Cyrus, until the latter found it convenient to fix his court at Babylon; and there are some indications on which a conjecture might be founded that this viceroy was Astyages. It is quite natural that the year in which Cyrus began to reign in person at Babylon should be reckoned (as it is by the Hebrew writers) the first year of his reign over the whole empire. This view is confirmed by the fact, that in the prophecies of the destruction of Babylon it is Cyrus, and not any Median king, that is spoken of. Regarding this difficulty, then, as capable of being explained, it remains that Xenophon's statement about Cyaxares II. is entirely unsupported.

"None but the sacred writers mention the edict of Cyrus for the return of the Jews. A motive for that step may be perhaps found in what Herodotus says about his designs on Egypt. The very remarkable prophecy relating to the destruction of Babylon, and the restoration of the Jews by Cyrus, is in Isaiah xlv. xlv., besides other important passages in Isaiah and Jeremiah, which predict the fall of Babylon without mentioning the name of Cyrus, and the corresponding history is in the books of Daniel, Ezra, and 2 Chron. xxxvi. 22, 23. The language of the proclamation of Cyrus, as recorded both in Ezra i. 2 and 2 Chron. xxxvi. 22, seems to countenance the idea that he was acquainted, as he might easily be through Daniel, with the prophecy of Isaiah. 'The Lord God of heaven . . . hath charged me to build him an house at Jerusalem, which is in Judah' (Compare Isaiah xlv. 28, xlv. 13); but beyond this one point there is nothing to sustain the notion of Hales and others, that Cyrus was more than an unconscious instrument in accomplishing the designs of Providence. The contrary is intimated in Isaiah xlv. 5."—(Smith's Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography and Mythology, vol. i. p. 923.)

The subject upon which Lady Julia Lockwood has been writing is worthy of attention, and therefore we have given so much space to it; but as to the work itself, to which her name appears on the title-page, it is utterly undeserving of notice, and the sooner it is permitted to fall into oblivion, the better for her ladyship's credit as a writer. It is the abridgement of an abridgment of a book which is no more a genuine "Life of Cyrus," than Fenelon's "Telemachus" is a true biography of the son of Ulysses.

## THE MAGAZINES.

In the Cornhill, Mr. Thackeray's hero, "Philip," has fallen into fresh troubles. He has had a quarrel with his rich and noble relative, the Lord of Ringwood, and has in consequence lost a very handsome legacy, by means of which the readers of Mr. Thackeray's tale were doubtless calculating that all impediments in the way of the hero's marriage were to be removed. Up to this time Mr. Thackeray has ventured upon the bold and edifying experiment of showing how a young man of talent and high principle can carve out for himself an independent career, supporting his father, and at the same time struggling to make for himself a home in which he may receive the woman to whom he has devoted himself for life. How is the hero to succeed in this magnanimous effort? Is he to do battle like many an honest man before him, and be content with moderate means; or is there to be "a will" discovered, and "Philip," after all, turn out nothing better than "a romance" hero—put in possession of money he never earned—to live in a palace, and have a coach and four, because somebody else had been "accumulating savings" for his benefit? The character of "Philip," as it has been hitherto portrayed, is perfect; and we wait with anxiety for its complete and consistent development. Close upon Mr. Thackeray's tale follows a contribution well worthy of being placed by its side—it is entitled "Bab Lambert."—In Macmillan there are some good contributions this month. From one of them, "More about Masters and Workers," by the author of "Tom Brown at Oxford," we take a longer extract than usual. In the following paragraph Mr. Hughes gives expression to opinions that are universally entertained by the non-trading classes—high and low—rich and poor—in all parts of the British islands.

"Looking at the question from my own point of view, and with an eye to my own pocket and comfort, I must say that, as at present advised, I am all against the great fish, who, like jack in a preserved pond, are eating up all the little fish of their own species. I see huge establishments rising up on all sides, and absorbing shop after shop in a street, and yard after yard in a neighbourhood, till it seems as if in the end we should have one mammoth emporium (or whatever the favourite name may be) in each district, to which one will be obliged to go for everything one wants. But while this process is going on, I don't find that I get honest and cheaper wares from the emporium, but worse things and therefore dearer, than I got before. The transactions of the emporium are so large



that the contract system must creep in there, and it is impossible that the master's eye can be upon all the goods he deals in. If he looks to his accounts, it is as much as he can do; and the personal interest and pride in good work, which a man might and did feel who had 100 customers, disappear when he has 10,000. If other people have found that they get better houses, clothes, furniture, or food, at mammoth establishments, let them say so; my experience has been all in the other direction."

There is no story published in any of the periodicals to be compared for richness of humour and a profound knowledge of London life in all its varieties, with Mr. Dudley Costello's "Lorn Loriot" in *Bentley*. In the present number the prince of scamps, "the *soi-disant* Comte de la Roquetaillade," is on the river at Richmond, and who that has ever ventured to take a boat there, will not recognize his Thames Charon, in the following hints for an addition to the "fare," however exorbitant it might be:—

"Yes, yer honner," observed Jacob Tubbs, in answer to no remark, when they were fairly under weigh, "this here pulling takes it out of a man—it do! But what's the odds? Dooty's a pleasure, when one has gen'l'men aboard as is gen'l'men! When a party says to me, out upon a excursion just as this may be, 'Tubbs,' says they, when we comes back, 'you've done your dooty like a man, and we're satisfied, there's a half-crown over your fare,' why I feels all of a glow like, not for the sake of the gratuity, mind you—tho' I'm a poor man, with a wife and thirteen young 'uns—but for the manner in which they recompensifies me."

"The Shadow of Ashlydyat" is the name of a new tale commenced this month in *Colburn* by the author of "East Lynne." In the same magazine there is an article *à propos* of the present state of affairs in Rome, entitled "Rienzi" by "Sir Nathaniel," and exhibiting that writer's well-known powers and indefatigable research.—There are two very instructive articles in *Blackwood*—the first, "Democracy Teaching by Example," exhibiting the condition to which "the great republic" is reduced; and the other, "Meditations on Dyspepsia," containing much useful information to all whose necessities or inclination compel, or dispose them to lead, a sedentary life.—In the *Art-Journal* the leading illustrations are "The Maid of Saragossa," engraved by W. Greatbach, from the picture by Sir David Wilkie in the Royal collection at Buckingham Palace; "The Shipwreck," engraved by W. Miller, from the picture by Turner in the National Gallery; and the "Ecce Homo!" engraved by Millefer, from a picture by Morales in the Gallery at the Louvre.—There are seven articles in the *Westminster Review*: 1. Mr. Godwin Smith on the Study of History. 2. Biography, Past and Present. 3. A Visit to the Mormons. 4. Count de Cavour. 5. The Apocalypse. 6. The Rival American Confederacies. 7. The Trades' Unions. The author of the last article maintains that the struggle between the master employers and the artisans' trades unions, embodies in itself the most vital of all questions. These are his words:—

"We venture to affirm that during the last few months we have had under our very eyes a question and a struggle, in comparison with which Austrian wars and American secessions are but trifles. We have seen, or might have seen, if we had attended to it, an important step in a movement which seems likely to take rank with the Reformation and the French Revolution, or even the foundation of Christianity itself, as radically altering the condition of society, not in England alone, but wherever industrial civilization has reached."

"Can Wrong be Right?" a tale by Mrs. S. C. Hall, is contained in *St. James's*, and renders that periodical most attractive; in addition to which are very clever contributions by Professor Ansted, W. F. Fairholt, Francis Freeling Broderip, the author of "Mary Powell," and some new writer, who tells a most thrilling incident with respect to a person who has wandered into a dark cavern, near Tenby, from which all chance of escape seems hopeless. The terrors of the situation are brought so vividly before the reader, that it is impossible to suppose it to be a mere work of imagination.—Mr. Sala's tale, in the *Temple Bar*, of "The Seven Sons of Mammon" has reached a climax. If there be any who still entertain a doubt as to Mr. Sala's claim to hold the first rank amongst living novelists, we would entreat of them to read the chapters describing the race course on Derby Day, with the incidents preliminary to, and subsequent on the arrest of "The Fair Widow," on the charge of "murder and other heinous crimes." The contrast between the scene on the course, with the horrors of the position of the miserable woman driven in a close carriage through the holiday throng, is a fine picture drawn by the hand of a master. We know of nothing in modern fiction superior to it.—The most remarkable article in *Fraser* this month is a contribution by Mr. Mill, the political economist. It is, no doubt, a very fine specimen of very clever writing, but we doubt much that it will be universally popular.—In the *Dublin University* is commenced a new Irish tale, entitled "The House by the Churchyard—a souvenir of Chapelizod." An Irish tale in this "Irish" magazine is a curiosity. The author is unmistakably an Irishman; but designates himself as "Charles de Cresseron." The introduction and opening chapters of the tale are good; but the last chapter is a sad failure, the utter break-down of a man who has not a particle of genuine humour trying to portray a comic scene. It would be difficult to find anything worse than the banquet scene in this new "Irish Tale."—We have received four numbers of a magazine published at Bradford, entitled *The Bradfordian*. It is a very creditable publication, containing a great deal of interesting local intelligence; and we trust it may be well supported by those for whose especial benefit it is published. "Mary Lee, the Bonnet-maker" is a tale which runs through its four numbers. It is plainly the composition of a young writer, and exhibits talent of no mean order.—The worst continuous story ever published in *Chambers's Journal*, "Myself and my Relatives," has been brought to a conclusion in the September part of that old-established periodical.—The *Sispeny Magazine* improves. Its last—the fourth—is the best number of it yet published.—The *Museum* is a very useful publication. We recommend to general attention two articles, one upon the readiest mode of acquiring a foreign language, and the other upon the

advantages of studying Greek and Latin, to be found in the October number; the first is entitled, "The Conversational Element in the Study of Language," and the second, "The Aims of Public School Education."—The *Controversialist*, the *Geologist*, *Good Words*, *Englishwoman's Magazine*, and other periodicals, did not reach in time to be noticed this week.

#### LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

AMONGST Messrs. Chapman & Hall's works in the press may be mentioned a new work, by the author of "The English at Home," Alphonse Esquiros, entitled "The Dutch at Home." A work by Madame Mohl, "On the Influence of Women in France." A Life of the late Duke of Richmond. A translation by Lady Duff Gordon, "Sybil's History of the Crusade." A volume of Tales and Papers, collected by Anthony Trollope, under the head of "The Tales of All Countries." A new work, by Captain Drayson, on "The Common Signs in the Heavens, and how to see and know them." A book, by Miss Linton, on Witchcraft. A third and cheap edition of Trollope's "La Beata," and a fourth and cheaper edition of White Melville's "Market Harboro."

Miss Muloch's clever novels, "Olive" and "The Ogilvies," are about to appear in a cheap library form.

Messrs. Macmillan & Co. will publish, early in the month, No. I. of the Second Series of the "Tracts for Priests and People."

Messrs. Smith & Elder will shortly publish cheap editions of Mr. Anthony Trollope's "Framley Parsonage," and "Lavinia," by the author of "Doctor Antonia." The same firm also announce a third edition of "Lectures and Addresses on Literary and Social Topics," by the late F. W. Robertson; "The Experiences of an English Sister of Mercy," a novel, called "Said and Done;" a new novel by Holme Lee, entitled "Warp and Woof; or, the Reminiscences of Doris Fletcher;" also a new volume of Fairy Tales, by Holme Lee, called "The Wonderful Adventures of Tuflongbo."

Mr. Edmund Falkener, the author of "Dædalus," a work lately published by Messrs. Bell & Daldy, has been lately presented with a gold medal by the King of Prussia, as a testimony to his literary abilities.

Messrs. W. & R. Chambers announce "An Economic and Comprehensive Dictionary of the English Language," by Mr. Arnold Cooley, to be issued in weekly numbers, price twopence. The editor promises to give 80,000 words (Walker's Dictionary containing only 33,178, and Sheridan's 37,000), making the most comprehensive dictionary at the price ever published.

Messrs. Moxon & Co. announce the publication of their complete edition of Thomas Hood's works in December next; to be completed in seven volumes, to be issued monthly.

Messrs. Longman have in the press a work by Mr. John Kemp, entitled "Wild Dayrell: a Biography of a German Exile."

Mr. Mozley will publish immediately another work by Miss Yonge, the author of the "Heir of Redcliff," called "The Stokesley Secret."

An unpublished tale by the late Sarah Fry is to be published by the Religious Tract Society.

Mr. Churchill has in the press a work by Mr. Alfred Haviland, surgeon to the Bridgewater Infirmary, on the Ancient and Modern Turkish Bath compared, and their use and abuse.

"The American Union," an inquiry into its real effects on the well-being of the people of the United States, and into the cause of its disruption, with an examination of secession as a constitutional right, by Mr. James Spence, will be published immediately by Mr. Bentley.

A letter from Berlin announces the death of three literary and artistic celebrities. "Within two days the country has lost the historian, Professor Schlosser, of Heidelberg; Dr. Göschl, the mystic commentator of Dante and Goethe, and a religious philosopher in the true sense of the word; and Herr Zwirner, the architect of the cathedral during the last twenty years of its renovation."

Mr. Murray is about to publish, in a cheap form, "The Home and Colonial Library." It is intended to arrange the various works as two distinct series, under the heads of Biography, History, and Historic Tales; and Voyages, Travels, and Adventures. Each work will be complete in itself.

Messrs. J. H. & James Parker have in the press a "Life of Bishop Wilson," written by the Rev. John Keble.

Messrs. Porteous & Hislop, of Glasgow, are about to publish a work by Mr. Alexander Hislop, on "The Proverbs of Scotland," collected and arranged, with notes, and a copious glossary.

Lady Charlotte Pepys' long promised book, "Domestic Sketches in Russia," is to be published directly by Messrs. Hurst & Blackett.

#### LIST OF NEW BOOKS AND NEW EDITIONS.

FROM SEPTEMBER 27TH TO OCTOBER 3RD.

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| Barlow (Dr. G. H.). Practice of Medicine. Feap. Second Edition. 12s. 6d. Churchill.                                      | Knight (Charles). The Stratford Shakespeare. Feap. cloth. 3s. 6d. Griffin & Bohn.   |
| Bannister (Rev. J. T.). Temples of the Hebrews. Post 8vo. 10s. 6d. J. Blackwood.   | Leary (F. H.). Easy Latin Exercises. 12mo. cloth. 1s. 6d. Mozley.   |
| Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress, illustrated by Harvey. Post 8vo. 6s. Bohn.  | Leaf (J.). Biographic Portraiture. Post 8vo. 1s. 6d. J. Blackwood.  |
| Bohn's Classical Library. Demosthenes' Private Orations, translated by C. R. Kennedy. Post 8vo. 5s. Bohn.                | Lyra Innocentium. Ninth edition. Feap. 7s. 6d. J. H. & J. Parker.   |
| Circle of the Sciences. Vols. VIII. and IX. 5s. Griffin & Bohn.  | Map of British Coal Fields. 2s. 6d. Mounted in case, 4s. 6d. Stanford.  |
| Cunningham (Peter). Walpole's Correspondence. Vol. VII. 8vo. cloth. 9s. Bohn.  | Macmillan's Magazine. Vol. IV. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Macmillan.  |
| Dobell (Dr. H.). Lectures on the Germs and Vestiges of Disease. 8vo. 6s. 6d. Churchill.                                  | My Daughter Marjorie. Post 8vo. 10s. 6d. Saunders & Otley.  |
| Davidson's Precedents in Conveyancing. Second edition. Vol. III. Royal 8vo. cloth. £2. 10s. W. Maxwell.                  | Ollendorff (H. G.). New Method of Learning to Read, Write, and Speak a Language in Six Months. Ninth edition. 12mo. cloth. 6s. 6d. Whittaker. |
| Examination Papers for Civil Service of India. July, 1861. Feap. folio. 2s. 6d. Stanford.                                | Ploughing and Sowing. Feap. cloth. 3s. 6d. Mozley.  |
| Frost (Rev. P.). Grammar School Classics: Tacitus, Germanicus, and Agricola; with Notes. 12mo. cloth. 3s. 6d. Whittaker. | Said and Done. Post 8vo. cloth. 10s. 6d. Smith & Elder.   |
| Holden (L.). Manual of Dissection. Second edition. 16s. Churchill.   | Scott (G. G.). Gleanings from Westminster Abbey. 8vo. 7s. 6d. J. H. & J. Parker.  |
| Harcastle (Charlotte). Constance Dale. 2 vols. post 8vo. £1. 1s. Newby.  | Smith (J. T.). Book for a Rainy Day. New edition. Feap. 3s. Bentley.  |
| Jesse (J. H.). Memoir of Richard III. 8vo. 15s. Bentley.   | Thompson (Dr. R.). On the Diseases of the Prostrate. 10s. 6d. Churchill.  |
|  | The Christian Year. Seventeenth edition. 6s. J. H. & J. Parker.   |
|  | Yonge (Miss). The Stokesley Secret. Royal 18mo. cloth. 3s. 6d. Mozley.  |